The Nation.

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The Week.

All who would see the standard of the Federal judiciary maintained have reason for great encouragement that the Judiciary Committee of the Senate on Monday refused to report favorably the nomination of John R. Hazel for Judge of the new United States District Court in this State, and decided to give representatives of the New York Bar Association an opportunity to be heard in protest against its confirmation on Saturday. The great danger in this case was the success of the favorite Platt policy of "jamming through" the nomination before opposition could make itself felt. The delay gives a chance to inform the Senate of the feeling over the outrage among all right-minded men. The Bar Association does well to take the lead in this matter.

Senator Spooner's Philippine speech, with its cross-fire of not very dignified question and retort during three days last week in the Senate, reveals three different characteristics struggling for the mastery in him. One is the legal joy of combat. He likes to take up a political question as a lawyer would a case, eagerly argue for his contention as a matter of mental gymnastics, and meet all comers on the floor of the Senate as he would opposing counsel in the rough-and-tumble of a Western country court-room, with an audience of farmers agape at his readiness of repartee. There has been something too much of this, and too evident, in his discussion of the brief which he holds for the President in the case of the Filipinos vs. McKinley. And from his legal attitude he glided too often into that of the mere partisan, as where he accused Senator Hale of making a "Democratic speech" in so much as referring to the Cuban frauds. This commitment of Mr. Spooner to the defence of all that has been done in the Republican name is what embarrasses him in his speech, and lends an air of insincerity to certain parts of it, while it obscures and neutralizes the utterance of his sentiments as, what we are bound to believe him, an Anti-Imperialist by conviction.

Passing by the words of the lawyer and the thorough-going Republican, what is to be said of Senator Spooner's peroration, in which he professed to speak as a liberty-loving American? He declared his willingness, and his belief in that of the American people, to give the Filipinos "an autonomous government." Does he mean an independent government? He does, unless he stoops to a juggle with words quite unworthy of him. Then why did he not say independent? The partisan in him would not let him. If he said "independent," he might be getting unawares upon Mr. Bryan's platform, which is independence under an American protectorate. If he said independent, he would make the only difference between his policy and that of Mr. Schurz one of time. Senator Spooner says "the day will come" when we shall find it our duty to give the Filipinos an autonomous government. What the Anti-Imperialists say is that the day has already come—at least that the day has come to *promise* an independent government to the Filipinos, as we have promised it to the Cubans, and to work with them to establish it by peaceful coöperation, instead of pursuing our present policy of bloody extermination of all who resist us. Is the only difference that Mr. Spooner would wait a year, or five years, before doing it? The terms of his speech leave this doubtful. But one thing it puts beyond all doubt, and that is the revolt of the Republicans of the Northwest, for whom Mr. Spooner speaks, at the vulgar and mercenary Imperialism which Hanna would fasten upon the Republican party, and their desire to see something like decency and humanity put into the utterances of the Philadelphia platform. They sneer at their critics, but when it comes to going before the people in a Presidential year, they would like right well to be able to use some of those old American watchwords of liberty, sympathy with oppressed peoples, and the consent of the governed, which have so rapidly become the monopoly of the hateful Anti-Imperialists.

Secretary Root and Senator Lodge, with a war with Germany on their hands and the Monroe Doctrine in deadly peril, ought to be in an excited and alarmed state of mind. Army reorganization has failed in Congress. Not even a beggarly addition of 5,000 men to the artillery will be voted. Armor for the new ships is withheld. Then why are Root and Lodge so calm? The net outcome of their warnings and exertions is a smuggled amendment to make Corbin a Major-General. That makes all safe. When the Emperor William hears of Corbin's promotion, he will abandon his Brazilian campaign. The Monroe Doctrine will take a new lease of life on the strength of Corbin's new shoulder-straps. At least, if all these happy consequences will not follow, Lodge and Root ought, in their character of far-sighted patriots, to be filling the air with lamentations. But they are taking their rebuff by Congress with surprising meekness, considering their recent warlike fury. Speaker Henderson has discovered that a few German votes in doubtful districts are against Imperialism, and down goes the gorgeous programme of a large standing army. Think of a "world-Power" halted in its splendid career by a handful of German-American voters in Iowa! And Root and Lodge silent! They are probably reflecting bitterly on that saying of Bacon's in his essay, "Of Empire," "It is the solecism of power to think to command the end and yet not to endure the mean." There can be no American Empire without the "mean" of a big army, and here is an Imperialist party and Congress afraid to vote it.

Mr. Payne's statement regarding war taxes and revenue, made to Congress on May 23, strikes us as hardly ingenuous. The first reason produced by the Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, by way of explaining the Committee's unwillingness to reduce the taxes, is that the monthly surplus revenue is decreasing. Until April it had averaged eight million dollars a month; during April, it was only four millions. Mr. Payne was careful to leave the inference that this change means continuous reduction. But the inference is wholly unwarranted. The decrease in April's surplus revenue last year was much larger than last month's decrease, and its cause was precisely similar—slackening in customs duties (always incident to the later spring months), and payment, on April 1, of some five million dollars in quarterly interest on the public debt. Last year, the monthly surplus at once began to rise again in the summer months, and by autumn was running $20,000,000 above the totals for the same months in 1898. Similar recovery will occur in the ordinary revenues this year. The surplus revenue for May to date is not exceptionally large, and Mr. Payne was careful to point out the fact. He was equally careful, however, not to mention that it is larger by a million and a half than it was last year. So far as current revenue is concerned, the Treasury is far better able now to dispense with some of the war taxes than it was six months ago.

In his reference to bond-redemptions, Mr. Payne's presentation of facts was more honest. It is true that the Treasury has paid out, in addition to ordinary expenditure, $28,000,000 for premiums on high-rate bonds voluntarily reduced to 2 per cent., and has already notified its creditors that it proposes to buy in $25,000,000 old bonds redeemable at the Government's pleasure. There is fair ground of argument for use of the current surplus in redemption of the debt; but the Government ought to define its position

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clearly. As matters stand, the Treasury has no fixed policy, and can have none. Mr. Gage has given the Ways and Means Committee the benefit of his views, and the Committee has not adopted them. The Secretary estimated that the surplus of seventy millions for the fiscal year ending next month would be increased to eighty-two millions in the ensuing fiscal year, and asked for reduction in the taxes. What does Congress purpose doing with this accruing surplus? Redemption of the $25,000,000 old two per cents, as proposed a fortnight ago by Secretary Gage, will remove the last of the public debt redeemable at par at the Government's pleasure. This done, the Treasury will be left to confront a possible tight money market in the autumn, with no alternative except purchase of bonds by wholesale at the market price, or extension of the Government bank deposits, which already exceed a hundred million dollars. We do not doubt that the problem of equitable tax-reduction is embarrassing; how much so was indicated by Mr. Richardson's rejoinder, for the Opposition, that he would like to see the beer tax repealed. No doubt the brewers would have their say if the committee undertook reduction of the stamp taxes. But wherein does the committee gain by mere postponements?

The defence urged in the case of the extra allowances made to our army officers in Cuba is beside the mark. The question is not whether the men are paid extravagantly or lived luxuriously; but whether they were paid at all out of the Cuban Treasury. If they were United States officers, assigned to duty in a place where they could not live on their salaries, they should undoubtedly have been allowed more pay, but it should have come from our own Treasury. To help ourselves, as we think needful, out of other people's funds is the vicious thing. Nor is it any excuse to say that the Cubans have not complained—that they are aware that they have a better government than they ever had before; their taxes being lighter, and the net amount of public money employed in useful public works greater than in any year of the Spanish régime. This would be only to say that, whereas the Spanish Government improperly diverted, say, $5,000,000 a year from the Cuban Treasury, the charge against us is only $500,000. The point is, of course, that there ought not to be the improper diversion of one centavo.

The "Industrial Commission" is not composed of men whose opinions are of commanding importance, and its report to Congress on labor legislation contains nothing novel. The advice to the State Legislatures that they should all agree to enact the same statutes concerning labor is simply puerile, and the other suggestions of the Commission are not likely to receive much attention. The real purpose for which this Commission was created was to find places for a certain number of politicians, and not to bore Congress with reports. Its existence will presently terminate by limitation, and an amendment has been introduced in the Sundry Civil Bill providing for its extension. But the Democrats and Populists do not propose to let the Republicans secure so much of this patronage as they have. The President has the appointment of nine of the Commissioners, and he has given all these places to Republicans. The other parties do not regard this as a fair distribution of spoils, and they insist that if the Commission is to be continued, the nine Presidential appointments shall be made from the three parties in equal numbers. It would be as well that the real character of the Commission should be thus advertised.

The Comptroller of New York city continues his laudable efforts to promote reform in our financial administration by showing how the proceeds of taxation are applied to the support of politicians. Mr. Coler finds, on investigation, that during the last two years Mr. Elliot Danforth, who became known to the public through his active support of Bryan and free silver, has received some $50,000 as counsel fees in transfer-tax proceedings. He was appointed as counsel in these proceedings by the Republican Comptroller of the State of New York, for reasons which, it is safe to say, will never be publicly announced. Possibly the Republican managers agreed to reward Mr. Danforth for his assiduous labors in hanging millstones about the neck of the Democratic party in this State, success in which well deserved to be paid for. But Republican lawyers may properly think that to give an active Democratic politician $50,000 out of $130,000 worth of patronage is carrying political generosity too far. Mr. Olcott, who obtained some $42,000, and Mr. Fallows, who came in for nearly $20,000, may not be envious, but even the addition of the new appraiserships to the list of the emoluments provided for politicians will hardly satisfy them that the distribution of spoils is equitable.

The evil effects of the Kentucky imbroglio are not confined to that State. Happily, the Supreme Court has decided that the Federal Government is not called on to intervene, but Gov. Mount of Indiana has felt obliged to take the Republican side in the controversy. Charles Finley, formerly Secretary of State, having been indicted in Kentucky as an accessory to the murder of Gov. Goebel, fled to Indiana. The Governor of Kentucky thereupon demanded his extradition, which the Governor of Indiana refused. He justified his refusal as "a bounden duty owed to God and mankind," asserting that, in the present condition of affairs in Kentucky, Finley would probably be murdered if he were surrendered. The Constitution of the United States ordains that a person charged in any State with crime, who shall flee from justice and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime. In 1793 Congress enacted a law making it the duty of the Executive of the State where the fugitive is found to surrender him, and prescribing the form of demand. There is a law in Indiana, signed by the present Governor of that State, which says that, on due demand of the executive authority of any State or Territory in the Union, the Governor of Indiana shall issue his warrant for the arrest of a fugitive from justice. Gov. Mount has therefore acted in apparent violation of the Constitution of the United States and of the law of Indiana, in refusing to entertain the demand of the Governor of Kentucky for the extradition of Finley.

Censure of so good a man as Mr. McKinley is, we know, calumny and a crime in those who have no pretensions of piety equal to his; but what are we to think when two great church assemblies venture to assail him? The Methodists, in their General Conference, have had some terribly frank and unpleasant things to say of their dear brother McKinley and his friendly attitude towards liquor-dealers. They point out, what is absolutely true, that he could, as irresponsible autocrat in the Philippines, prevent the importation of a single gallon of whiskey or beer, instead of letting them go in by the carload and ship-load. The good man sighs and suffers these wounds in the house of his friends in silence; but, nevertheless, he gets a friend to introduce a new anti-canteen bill in Congress, at this late day, when it cannot possibly pass. This shows that the Methodist shafts have gone home. As for the Presbyterian Assembly, it adopted a report full of grave implications about the President's hobnobbing with "Catholic prelates," and being thereby induced to be altogether too complacent in his alliance with the Scarlet Woman in the Philippines. Ought not some Administration Senator to rise and accuse these clerical fault-finders of prolonging the war, and being really responsible for every American life lost in the Philippines?

Abolition of the time-limit of pastorates in the Methodist Church has been led up to by successive approximations, and has for some time been clearly fore-

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seen as inevitable; yet its final acceptance by the General Conference on May 23 will seem to many almost revolutionary. What it chiefly indicates is a change of method. In fact, the change of method has already come about, and the action of the Conference is one of the results. What we mean is the transition from the old style and type of "revival" preaching, with cataclysmic conversion as the main thing aimed at, to the conception of the slow upbuilding of Christian character. Education and personal influence, long applied, have come to hold a larger place in the work of all churches than the sharp and fiery appeals of the circuit-rider. One year or two years was long enough for a minister to spend in one parish if all he had to do was to warn every man in it to flee from the wrath to come. But the moment we arrive at the idea and ideal of Christian nurture, of the cumulative power of personal character, of influence which is necessarily the slow growth of years, the need of making longer pastorates possible, when desirable, becomes evident. This the Methodist Church has at last recognized; and the change is both significant and wise.

The action of the Conference in voting to change the Constitution of the Church so as to admit women to representation in all future conferences, whether local or national, represents the tardy triumph of fair play and common sense over a conservatism which was strongly intrenched in the fundamental law of the denomination. There is no other religious organization in the country which gives women a larger share in the work of the average church, or which depends more fully upon the help of the sex for its efficiency. Nor is there any other denomination which is more largely made up of plain people, living in country districts where the coöperation of men and women in work for the public good is so common that the argument from experience for the representation of women in conferences should long ago have proved decisive. But it is precisely among people of this type that respect for tradition is strongest, and that the plea that the old landmarks should not be disturbed is most effective. The conservatives were also strengthened by the fact that some of the strongest Bourbons were men who occupied positions of influence, the editor of perhaps the most powerful newspaper organ being almost a fanatic in his championship of the bygone ideas. Not a few conferences, in Pennsylvania and in various States beyond the Alleghanies, are largely composed of people of foreign descent, who maintain the most antiquated notions about "woman's sphere." Finally, it was necessary that a two-thirds vote in favor of any radical change should be secured in the local conferences, and after this that the General Conference should give its consent. Hence, protracted and earnest efforts to bring about the adoption of a rule which had in its favor from the start every argument that appeals to good sense.

While the new German meat bill, which passed the Reichstag on May 23, was shorn of many of its original offensive features, its obvious intent is still to throw fresh obstacles in the way of food importations from the United States. That it tends, at the same time, to increase the cost of living to German artisans, is no objection whatever in the minds of the Agrarians. They are thorough-paced protectionists, and would gladly exclude all food products if they could. What they have now won came to them only after a hard fight, and as the price of their acquiescence in the Emperor's pet scheme for a new navy. The Agrarians shrewdly took advantage of the Government's necessities and of their own parliamentary strength, to exact terms. They first pretended that they could not vote at all for the enlarged navy; Dr. Hahn, the Secretary of the Agrarian League, having lobbied with the Clericals in the Reichstag to vote against the "horrid navy bill," as one of them testified that he called it. But finally the navy bill was somewhat modified, and then the Agrarians boldly issued their ultimatum. They must have a meat bill seriously crippling imports at once, and decreeing absolute prohibition after 1903. They asserted that they had the votes to pass such a bill. But presently appeared a notice in the official *Norddeutsche Zeitung* that the Government could not possibly ratify such a law, even if it were voted. Since that time, a month ago, it has only been a question of haggling for the best terms obtainable, and these were embodied in the bill just passed. Doubtless the navy bill will soon follow. The Emperor will have his way, but only after an amount of bargaining and log-rolling which ill becomes one ruling by right divine. "He talked to me as if I were a public assembly," was Bismarck's indignant comment on a man who had addressed him with the usual flourishes of a politician.

Great Britain's military difficulties in South Africa are nearly surmounted, but the political problem remains, and daily looks tougher as the time draws near when it must be attacked. To bring the resources of a vast empire to bear upon two small republics so as to crush their military power was only a question of time; but shall we see a following statesmanship as skilful as Lord Roberts's generalship? Mr. Chamberlain has already designated a military government as the proper thing for the Dutch republics for a long time to come. And there is a strong push, mostly made by ferocious non-combatants like Mr. Kipling, to have a lot of hanging and deportation follow the fighting, so as to draw a clear line, even in Cape Colony, between those who have been "loyal" and those who have not. With all this talk going on, the burghers can scarcely be expected to take kindly to the idea of meekly submitting to British rule. "Independence" is the magic word for them, and they apparently continue to hope for it, even against hope. But they cannot have it now. Even the English Radicals, and Liberals like Mr. Bryce, no longer think Dutch independence in South Africa possible, except in a very limited and unnatural sense. Mr. Bryce, for example, has suggested the annexation of the Rand, the entire disarming of the burghers, and the reaffirmation of suzerainty over them in all foreign relations; and would then leave them their independence thus mutilated. Probably they would see little to choose between these proposals and those of Mr. Chamberlain. But, as things are, it betrays a want of grasp of the hard facts for the Boer envoys and the Dutch professors who have just issued their appeal to American universities, to ask or expect a restoration of the old independence. Under what pledges could it now be had?

Monday's flurry in the French Chamber was only the latest, and probably the last, attempt to upset the present Ministry before the Exposition is over. It was the direct result of the success of the Nationalists in the recent Paris elections. Out of 80 members of the Municipal Council, they elected the unexpectedly large number of 51, and have since spent the time falling on each other's necks, with cries of "Je vous embrasse," so sure were they that they would turn out Waldeck-Rousseau before the month was over. The pretence they made in the Chamber was that the Government meant to reopen the Dreyfus case. As foundation for the charge, they asserted that a speech by M. Joseph Reinach, in which he said that amnesty was not justice, and that Dreyfus should be, not merely pardoned, but acquitted, was semi-official. They also pointed to the fact that secret-service officers had been investigating the record of some of the anti-Dreyfus witnesses, which was naturally found to be bad. With all this prejudice to work upon, and with the prestige of their electoral victory in Paris fresh in the public mind, they made what is generally considered the most formidable assault upon the Ministry which it has as yet had to endure. But it came off triumphant. How much it owed to the Exposition, and the dread of driving away visitors by turmoil in Paris, no one can say positively; but it must have owed a good deal. They have remodelled the old saying now in France, and made it read, "L'Exposition, c'est la paix."

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"REPOSING CONFIDENCE."

At the end of Postmaster-General Smith's letter of instructions to the official investigator of the Cuban frauds, he said that the President was "deeply shocked" at the "shameful betrayal of trust" by officials in whom "confidence had been reposed." This simple-hearted utterance might evoke the cynical retort from those who have, in their turn, reposed confidence in President McKinley, that they are glad he knows himself what it is to be deeply shocked by official betrayal. They had their shock long ago in his civil-service pledges violated, and his plain duty become plainer shuffling. But we pass, with the Methodists, from such painful personalities about a brother beloved, to say a word concerning the total misconception of the principles involved which is implied in the President's lamentation over his Cuban rascals.

"Reposing confidence," we must first remind him, is an exploded doctrine of the civil service. Minor appointments, like that of Neely, are no longer made, by decent governments, on the basis of confidence, but on that of demonstrated competence and character. What does Mr. McKinley think the civil-service-reform laws are for? Are they not for the express purpose of removing the great body of national employees—80,000 to 100,000 of them—from the category of "confidence" to that of ascertained fitness? The point is that we have a system of recognized checks and safeguards, to prevent just such breaches of official trust as have shocked the good President. We do not proceed upon happy-go-lucky hopes that all will turn out well, but we examine, we test, we observe, we promote the men in subordinate positions, and thus take a bond of fate instead of reposing confidence. The President knew all about this established method. He promised to apply it in Cuba. Secretary Root pointed out the imperative need of applying it there. But Mr. McKinley complacently reposed confidence instead. That is, he walked over the precipice in plain daylight, and is shocked to find himself lying at the bottom bruised and bleeding.

All this is supposing that Mr. McKinley really reposed confidence in Neely, Reeves, Thompson, and the other accused officials. But he did nothing of the kind. The true objects of his confidence were Hanna and Senator Fairbanks and Assistant Postmaster-General Heath. He took their word for it that their henchmen were fit for office. The slightest application of civil-service tests would have thrown out Neely, with such a harum-scarum record as he had. Five minutes' talk with him would have been enough to show that the Cuban service was the last place in which to turn loose a shifty speculator. But the President simply took the nominee of the bosses at their own valuation. This is the ultimate truth in his lament over betrayed confidence. It was the bosses in whom he trusted—not the thieving officials; he knew nothing about them—and they have smirched his Administration by loading their needy followers upon it. There was "confidence" involved, but so there is in the operations of the "confidence-man." The President's outcries are very like those of the innocent farmer to whom a sharper has sold a gold brick. He "reposed confidence" in Hanna and the Indiana bosses with true bucolic simplicity.

But not even here does the President's confidence game end. We see in the case of the Buffalo politician whom he has named for the Federal bench, that he is willing to appoint men to important offices even after he knows that they are not deserving of confidence. No mistake is possible about this. Mr. McKinley might conceivably believe, in the goodness of his heart, that a Platt wire-puller who suddenly announced himself as "out for the ermine," was just the man to make a learned and upright judge. He might even suppose that Platt and Depew could not possibly impose an unfit candidate upon him. But if he had any illusion on either of these points he has been thoroughly undeceived. The delegations from Buffalo have given the verdict of the vicinage upon Platt's man Hazel, and it is that his elevation to the bench would be a disgrace and a danger. But has that made any difference to Mr. McKinley? Oh no, he continues to "repose confidence"; and if Hazel should hereafter disappoint him he would be duly "shocked." But this would not prevent him, were opportunity ever given him, from solemnly arraigning Mr. Bryan for an intended assault upon the purity and independence of the Federal Judiciary!

There is a final defence which Mr. McKinley's friends make for these outrages of his upon the public service. It is the same defence which Gov. Roosevelt's lone apologist offers for his outrage, both upon the public service and his own professions, in making spoils of the transfer-tax appraisers. It is that, when all is said, you have to stand by the chosen leader of your party. If Comptroller Morgan chose to make bad appointments (everybody knows, of course, that he did not make them; he was only Platt's registering clerk), the remedy is to elect a better man. In the same way Mr. McKinley says: Platt and Depew are the recognized leaders of the party and I must defer to them. Don't blame me; choose better leaders. But how plain a tale puts down this Roosevelt-McKinley plea. In the first place, they have assured us, by word and act, that these wicked leaders were worthy men. Was not Morgan elected on the same ticket as Roosevelt, and with his open endorsement? Did not McKinley give the voters to understand that Platt and Depew were men after his own heart? It is late in the day to turn now and say they should never have been chosen to represent the party. Furthermore, they do not now represent it, except as the ringleaders of a mutiny who had taken possession of the ship might be said to represent the owners and passengers. Is it not a fact that Platt's control of the Republican party in this State is just about the same as that of a brig by a riotous boatswain who has killed the first mate, flung the captain overboard, gagged the passengers, and left them locked in the cabin? Depew, in this case, would be an old tar who had consented to become acting mate, partly through threats, partly through the promise of extra grog. And the President recognizes these successful mutineers as legitimately in command of the ship! And he does his best, by shutting his ears to the cries of the helpless passengers and the appeals of the loyal members of the crew, to make that piratical command permanent! But he will go on "reposing confidence." He will also go on complaining of confidence betrayed, and illustrate once more that old saying of Mountstuart Elphinstone, the great Anglo-Indian statesman, that politicians could never be got to understand that "things cannot be and not be at the same time."

THE WAR ON MONOPOLIES.

Many interesting questions are raised by the decision of the Attorney-General of New York to take proceedings to restrain the American Ice Company from selling ice in this State. Vigorously as most persons denounce monopoly, they must admit that it would be a very serious matter to cut off the supply of ice from this city. Immense quantities of perishable food are kept here in cold-storage, and the single article of milk, in hot weather, requires a great deal of ice for its preservation. If the American Ice Company has a monopoly, to prohibit it from selling ice would mean something like starvation to many of the inhabitants of this city. If the charge against it is sustained, we must, therefore, be prepared to suffer for our principles. Possibly it may be thought judicious to protract the proceedings until cold weather approaches, when a decision against the ice company would have less serious consequences.

The reply to such considerations which naturally suggests itself is, that the ice belonging to the wicked corporation would somehow be supplied to the public. No doubt it would; but in that event the legal proceedings are rather farcical. Will the ice be sold at lower prices than those now asked? It is hard to see why it should be, and easy to see why the legal complications should tend to increase the price. The American Ice Company will be dissolved into its constitu-

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ent companies, the owners of its stock will become owners of the stock of these companies, and its managers will be their managers. The original Sugar Trust was dissolved because it was an unlawful combination; but consumers of sugar obtained that product no cheaper because of the dissolution of the Trust. The Standard Oil Trust was terminated by legal proceedings in Ohio; but the oil business appears to be carried on as before. So it may be with ice. As the inhabitants of this city cannot live without it, and as the stock held by the monopoly is indispensable, we must regard its suppression as a kind of legal fiction. Of course there is no doubt that the American Ice Company was formed for an illegal purpose. Its purpose is illegal under the statute passed last year, under the previous statutes, and at common law. Any and every combination whereby competition in producing or dealing in things of common use may be prevented, comes under the ban. Nothing, however, is better understood by business men than that such combinations are infinite in number. Some are on a great scale and attract much attention; but the innumerable small ones are quite as illegal. The labor unions fix the price of their services. Professional men do the same. In every trade there are continual attempts to control competition and to regulate prices. At one time, under the influence of Adam Smith's exposure of the futility of legislative restraints, the outcry against monopolies and combinations subsided; but at present it is more vehement than ever, and we shall probably have to go through a course of legislative experiments.

It must be admitted that, so far as making political capital out of hostility to monopolies is concerned, the Republicans are in luck. The action which the Attorney-General of New York is to bring against the American Ice Company can hardly fail to show that it is a combination of Democratic politicians. Should this be the case, it will be a most effective campaign argument. Most of the denunciation of Trusts and monopolies comes from the Democratic orators. They have been confidently telling the people that all the friends of monopoly and oppression were in the Republican party; and the people have been inclined to believe them. But now comes this shocking disclosure in the stronghold of the Democrats, and it really appears to be sufficient to shut the mouths of their campaign speakers. It is all very well to assert that your adversaries are bad on general principles, but it is far more effective to refer to specific instances. The Republicans can now do this, while the Democrats cannot, and the latter will thus be put on the defensive.

We may add that the legislation against combinations, proposed by the Republican members of the Judiciary Committee of the House of Representatives, is quite as drastic as anything that the Democrats can suggest. The proposed amendment to the Constitution amounts to nothing; but the prohibition of the transportation of the products of combinations across State boundaries would be unquestionably efficacious. True, such a law would cut both ways. It would prevent the ice company from bringing its ice from the State of Maine, and would, therefore, hurt that company. It would also prevent this city and others from getting ice from Maine, which would hurt the inhabitants of those places. It would, perhaps, prevent the Standard Oil Company from selling oil and materials for making gas in many of the States, thereby causing loss to that company, and perhaps leaving many communities in darkness. But we can hardly expect to destroy such extensive and inveterate evils without causing ourselves much suffering; and, as we say, the law proposed by the Judiciary Committee is a drastic measure. The Democrats cannot criticise it on the ground that it does not go far enough.

On the whole, so far as the Trust issue is concerned, the position of the Republicans has considerably improved. They can point to the law recommended by the Judiciary Committee as showing their intentions, and to the prosecution of the American Ice Company as showing their achievements. The Democrats, on the other hand, will have to explain away their achievements in the formation and operation of this company, while they can suggest nothing better than the Republican Interstate Commerce Bill as indicating their intentions. In fact, Mr. Bryan and the leaders of his party seem to be committed to inconsistent policies. He would put Congress in control of all corporations; they would respect the rights of the States. But we may be assured that the platforms of both parties will be as outspoken against monopoly and oppression as any one can desire.

MUNICIPAL REFORM IN CHICAGO.

The problem of securing good government in a large city is perhaps nowhere harder than in Chicago. The second municipality in the country in point of size, it seems in some respects the first in the difficulties which confront any attempt to weld discordant elements into a harmonious whole. About three-fourths of the voters are of foreign birth or parentage, and many of them understand the English language but imperfectly, if at all. This hodge-podge of an electorate has been called upon of late years to settle questions of the greatest importance in the development of the city, involving oftentimes property rights of vast value, and offering easy opportunities for a resort to corruption.

The result of all this was that five years ago the municipal government of Chicago had become a disgrace to an American city. The Board of Aldermen contained sixty-eight members. Most of them were without personal standing or character, and fifty-eight of the sixty-eight were organized into a "gang" for the service and blackmail of corporations like the street-car companies. During the year 1895 six great franchises of enormous value were granted by the gang, the vetoes of the Mayor and the indignation of the public being alike ineffective. In 1900, what was in 1895 a small minority of honest men in the Council, practically without voice or influence, has become the dominant force in the body. The "aldermanic business" has ceased to be so profitable that politicians pay large amounts to secure an office with only a nominal salary. Corporations no longer find it a good investment to make large expenditures for the reëlection of notorious boodlers who have served them. It has even become again an honor to be a member of the Council, and any capable man may make an enviable reputation by faithful service.

The change is largely due to the work of the Municipal Voters' League, the story of which is told in the June *Atlantic* by Mr. Edwin Burritt Smith, who has been from the first prominently connected with the movement. There had been before 1895 a Civil-Service-Reform Association, a Civic Federation, and other reform organizations, which had aroused a wide interest in local administration and developed a general desire for better things. In 1895 the Legislature passed a civil-service law, which, by popular vote, the city decided to accept. In January, 1896, the Federation called together about 200 men, representing various clubs and reform organizations, to consider how the coöperation of good citizens, regardless of national politics, in the reform of the city government might best be secured. A committee of fifteen representative men was appointed, which subsequently reported in favor of the organization of a Municipal Voters' League, to be composed of a hundred men, and to have power to act. The principal objects announced were to secure the election of "aggressively honest men" to the Council, and to sustain the civil-service law.

The Committee of One Hundred at its first meeting appointed a small Executive Committee, and held only one other meeting—to hear the Executive Committee's report after the first campaign. It then disbanded, giving the smaller committee power to perpetuate itself. This committee consists of nine members, the terms of one-third expiring each year, and successors being elected by those holding over. It chooses officers, but their duties are only administrative, and no final action is taken

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without the vote of the committee. No person, committee, or organization in the wards has authority to use the name of the League or to commit it in any way. The general membership is composed of voters, who sign cards expressing approval of its purposes and methods.

The League devotes itself to securing a good City Council, and it has found the most effective way of accomplishing this result to consist in obtaining and publishing the records of members and would-be members. In every campaign before nominations are made, a full report of the official action of retiring members is prepared and printed, with specific judgments as to whether they deserve defeat or reëlection. On the eve of the election a like report on all candidates is published for the information of voters. There is a "League platform" which pledges the signer to exact full compensation for franchises, support the civil-service law, and unite with others to secure a non-partisan organization of the Council, and the voters are told whether or not every candidate stands on this platform. The importance of the League's endorsement has become so well recognized that party managers in many wards submit names of candidates in advance to the Executive Committee, its policy being to suggest candidates of its own only rarely.

The great lesson of the League's work is the immense importance of publicity in exposing bad men who seek office, and thus securing their defeat. As Mr. Smith says, "There is nothing that the city statesman of the ordinary spoils variety so dislikes as a campaign in which the issue is upon the facts of his own record." Another lesson of this experience is the demonstration of the fact that "there is nothing of such interest to the voters, on the eve of a municipal election, as an authoritative statement of these suggestive facts."

The Chicago League may not be a model which could be imitated to advantage in every detail of its organization and methods elsewhere—every city is likely to develop its own distinctive system. But some organization working to such ends every municipality ought to have, and the remarkable success of the Chicago body is full of encouragement to reformers everywhere throughout the country.

CONTEMPT OF COURT.

Senator Bate of Tennessee has introduced a bill which is correctly described as of considerable political importance. Nothing political, however, appears on the face of the measure. It purports only to regulate the trial and punishment of contempt of the courts of the United States. It merely provides that, in all cases of contempt except those committed in the presence of the court, or so near it as to obstruct its proceedings, the accused shall have a right to a trial by jury. To understand why this should be regarded as a political measure, we must go back to the time of the Chicago riots and to the Democratic platform of 1896. Some of the Federal courts issued extremely sweeping injunctions against all persons hindering the movements of railroad trains, and punished summarily several agitators who were charged with disobedience of these injunctions. Such "government by injunction" was denounced in the platform of the Democratic party.

It is said that Senator Bate maintains that his bill has no reference to the political situation, and no question is raised concerning his veracity. Nevertheless, the Democrats are reported to feel that a measure of this kind is required in order to place them "in the right attitude before the people on one of the issues of the campaign." They consider that a popular prejudice exists against the declaration concerning government by injunction, which declaration will be repeated in the platform to be adopted this summer. The misconception arises from supposing that the power of the courts to issue injunctions is threatened, whereas it is really the power of arbitrary punishment for violating injunctions. Whether these explanations are correct or not is comparatively immaterial. Senator Bate may have been influenced solely by legal considerations, and yet his measure will unquestionably strengthen the Democrats if they support it, and embarrass the Republicans if they oppose it.

In the first place, the bill has merits from a purely legal point of view. It tends to avoid confusion of remedies and clashing of authorities. It gives the courts power to preserve order in their precincts, and to maintain the dignity of their proceedings. Probably they should also have power to enforce mandates directing the performance of, or the abstention from, particular acts by specified individuals. To permit a litigant to disregard an injunction in a suit in equity, trusting to obtaining an eventual acquittal from a jury, would be quite too revolutionary. The remedy of injunction was devised precisely because the common-law penalties were found in certain cases insufficient. Irreparable injury may often be done unless the power of the court is exerted as soon as it is invoked. This power must be preserved, but it should not be extended to apply to cases where the common law and the criminal statutes provide an adequate remedy. When a man commits a breach of the peace, he should be dealt with by the sheriff or the policeman, not by a court of equity.

In the second place, the bill is meritorious on political as distinguished from party grounds. We cannot ignore the fact that we live under a dual government. The several States are constitutionally empowered to preserve order within their own boundaries, and the general Government is to intervene only when the authority of the State is successfully defied. There are some exceptions to this rule, as when the general Government is authorized to use its forces to prevent interference with the post; but "the exception proves the rule." At the time of the Chicago riots the authority of the State of Illinois was not overthrown; it was simply not effectively exerted. The Executive apparently sympathized with the rioters; but that can hardly be regarded as a reason why the Federal courts should have enjoined them from rioting and punished them for contempt when they disobeyed. Much loss and inconvenience may be caused by a bad State Government; but, as we see in the Kentucky case, there are great advantages in keeping the Federal Government out of the field which the State Governments are competent to regulate.

In the third place, there are obvious social reasons why such a measure is wise. We cannot ignore the fact that a large number of our citizens think that the Federal Judges are inclined to sympathize with employers when they quarrel with laborers. The belief exists that the rich men who direct our great industries are very potent when nominations to Federal offices are made, and that they use their influence in support of judicial candidates who will make satisfactory decisions. This belief may be unfounded, but if the law can be so changed as to discredit this belief, without hampering the administration of justice, it is wise to change it. Social discontent will be thus allayed, and if the Republican leaders should consider the matter, they might conclude that they had better make the reform themselves and get the credit of it.

We cannot maintain, in the face of such a judicial appointment as President McKinley has just made in this State, that the prejudice against the Federal judiciary is altogether unfounded. The new District Judge was appointed, it is generally understood, on the recommendation of Senators Platt and Depew. He was not appointed because he had distinguished himself as a lawyer. He had distinguished himself only as a politician. Perhaps he will make a good judge. Some politicians have made good judges; but, in spite of this fact, it is a bad plan to appoint politicians as judges. That means, under our present party system, that the party bosses will select the judges; and as the party bosses are in close touch with the men who direct our great corporations, unpleasant inferences will be drawn. So long as our judges are under this cloud, they should welcome any measure that will tend to avert suspicion and odium from their official acts.

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THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

LONDON, May 10, 1900.

If a rail of protection had to be put up at the Academy, as in the year of Mr. Frith's "Derby Day," it would be before Mr. Sargent's large portrait group. This is the painting selected by the Prince of Wales for special mention in his speech at the banquet on Saturday; it is the painting that all the world and many artists agree to admire. Such universal admiration is apt to make one sceptical, but still the work that attracts it is worth consideration.

In the course of his long, ambitious career, Mr. Sargent has never yet shown himself so ambitious as in this portrait of Lady Elcho, Mrs. Adeane, and Mrs. Tennant, the three daughters of Mrs. Percy Wyndham, of whom a famous portrait has already been painted, the masterpiece of Mr. Watts. Mr. Sargent, with a courage less common in England than in France, has taken for the work a large canvas—as large as those upon which the old Dutch Masters painted their Regent-Pieces. The three sisters are grouped immediately in the foreground, two sitting on a couch, the third standing just behind it. They wear white gowns of rich and shining stuffs that fall in voluminous folds. The couch is white, and on the floor is a jar filled with a great bunch of magnolias in full bloom. To render this mass of white, to give it variety, to express the different textures, to preserve the truth of the relative tones—above all, still to concentrate the interest on the faces—would be in itself no easy matter. But Mr. Sargent has succeeded in this; moreover, he has succeeded, which is more unusual with him, in carrying out an elaborate background and making it part of the picture. The three sisters do not spring out of vague shadows, like the little girl in red now at the New Gallery. They sit well within the cool green room. On the wall, just above them, hangs Mr. Watts's portrait of Mrs. Wyndham; on either side are other pictures; there is a cabinet of inlaid work in a corner, and opposite are one or two more large jars with magnolia blossoms and their glossy leaves. The sunlight, from an unseen window, falls here and there on the wall, and just touches the gilt of a frame. Mr. Sargent has never painted a more beautiful background.

Faults, of course, can be pointed out, and serious faults. The drawing is at times a little vague. One of the sisters, the youngest and fairest, seems to float along the couch instead of sitting solidly upon it; her outstretched arms—she is the only one to whom an animated gesture is allowed—are put in with almost too careless a sweep of the clever brush. The brush-work, indeed, is all too careless and rough; it insists upon proclaiming its dexterity and daring; the painter is determined that you shall see how the trick is done. Then there is always the suspicion that Mr. Sargent derives no small part of his strength from the weakness of his surroundings. In an Academy of pigmies, he towers a giant. Would the picture be so striking in the Trafalgar Square gallery, or even in the new Salon? Then, too, as I have said, the excessive praise of the crowd encourages doubt. The picture has been called *the* picture of the century, which is sheer nonsense; it has been declared the greatest portrait group ever painted—an assertion that sends you off, in fancy, post haste to Haarlem, to Amsterdam, to Madrid, and the greatness of Mr. Sargent's glory is effectually dimmed. But just the same, it is certain that he himself has never exhibited so complete and so serious a picture. It is a distinct improvement upon the "Mrs. Meyer," now at Paris, and the other portraits of the last few years.

A small sketch, which he calls "An Interior of Venice," is as clever in its way. It is a vivacious note of a palatial apartment, florid, gay, and delightful, as only Venetian architecture and decoration can be, with four figures—an old man reading and an old lady sitting on one side of the spacious room; a young girl busy with the tea things, and a young man idling gracefully on the other. Every touch is expressive, and the composition is as complete as in that larger group. But the handling seems to me too bold for so small a canvas. I cannot help thinking of the exquisiteness of a little interior by Terburg, for instance, or, to come down to our own day, by M. Stevens. That the sketch is clever is not to be denied, but art is not mere cleverness. However, Mr. Sargent has chosen this sketch for the "Diploma Work" which he, like every other Academician, is obliged to "deposit" with the Academy upon election. Because it is a sketch is no reason why it should not find a place in a public gallery, especially in a "Diploma Gallery" of mediocrities. But Mr. Sargent would have shown finer appreciation of the supposed dignity of the Academy, had he presented a work of more importance. It is curious with what a pang of regret Academicians always seem to part with the picture expected of them. Mr. Abbey is not more generous, but is giving a small canvas called "A Lute-Player," which, for his own reputation, might as well have remained in his studio.

Mr. Sargent has four other portraits. Two are not very notable; but two, of the Lord Chief Justice, are strong studies of character. Thanks to the vagaries of the Academy, to which many painters are no longer willing to expose themselves, Mr. Sargent enjoys his success alone and without rivals. The more accomplished of the younger men, like Mr. Steer and Mr. Greiffenhagen, have stayed away altogether; the Glasgow School is unrepresented; and, while M. Benjamin Constant, in all his flamboyancy, hangs on the line, an American like Mr. McLure Hamilton, who happens to be outside the Academical ranks, is placed about as badly as he can be.

Of academical portraits it is kinder to say nothing. Over the President's wooden puppet of a lady, over Mr. Herkomer's violent color schemes that hurt the eye, I draw a veil. But there is one other portrait group which, though it be a failure, cannot be passed in silence. When it was announced, some months ago, that Mr. Orchardson was to paint the Queen accompanied by the three future kings who are to succeed her—the Prince of Wales, the Duke of York, and the little Prince Edward of York—there was universal rejoicing. One might almost think the royal family had cultivated a taste for bad art, so persistent has been their preference for the mediocre painter. But Mr. Orchardson is an artist of distinction. His scope is limited, he has a tendency to anecdote, he always sees the world and the people in it through the same golden haze. But technically he is accomplished, his work is full of refinement, and he has produced more than one portrait of a high order of merit. Much, therefore, was expected of him, for which reason disappointment now is the keener. Like Mr. Sargent, he has painted a beautiful room—a pale golden room; its sumptuous ornament, its pictures and its busts, its gorgeous furniture, rendered with genuine charm, and all well enveloped in atmosphere and keeping their place in the picture. But, unlike Mr. Sargent, he has not been able to make his figures a part of the room; it is too big for them; they are lost in it. The Queen sits apart to the left, years younger and much slimmer than she was as all London saw her but the other day. Had Mr. Orchardson borrowed a hint from Rembrandt and painted her uncompromisingly in the dignity of her old age, he might have given her at least the beauty of character. To the right, the Prince of Wales stands stiff and upright, while the Duke of York bends over, in his irreproachable frock coat like a tailor's dummy, and urges the unwilling Prince Edward to present the huge nosegay grasped firmly in his two little hands. It is feeble to the last degree. Love of anecdote has been Mr. Orchardson's undoing. He probably was afraid of being photographic. But those old men and women in the Haarlem masterpieces, who sit in solemn groups doing nothing, are not photographic. Dignity, courtliness, splendor is what is asked of royalty, what Vandyck and Velasquez knew how to give. Mr. Orchardson has made the least of a fine opportunity.

Except among the landscapes, I found little else that interested me very keenly. Mr. Abbey's "Trial of Queen Katharine" is a large, ambitious piece of work; but, sometimes, Mr. Abbey, in his conscientious study of costume, is in danger of forgetting his picture. The eye wanders through a wilderness of gorgeous robes and gorgeous accoutrements, set against a background of gorgeous architecture and gorgeous stained-glass windows. The amount of research Mr. Abbey must have spent upon this one composition is marvellous. The trouble is, he has not concealed it skilfully enough, and the design suffers. There is no concentration, though he has sought—as in several of his big pictures—to produce his effect by the strong, almost violent, contrast of the red robes of the King and Cardinals with the white of the Queen and her ladies, whose faces are seen in a curious sharp silhouette that forces them quite out of the picture; an ingenious fitting together of many distinct parts, you would say, rather than one perfect whole. His smaller "Penance of Eleanor, Duchess of Gloucester," is more complete. Here again, for color scheme, there is the opposition of vivid reds and whites. The composition is more harmoniously balanced. The effect is concentrated on the central figure in her penitential draperies. But Mr. Abbey should have frankly accepted a decorative formula; flat convention of modelling would have been more appropriate in a design that is wholly and entirely without light or atmosphere.

When it comes to the landscapes, there are a few good pictures. It is true that Mr. Clausen, who began his career as a follower of Bastien-Lepage, has since sought his inspiration in Millet, and that originality is not his most conspicuous merit. But he has

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studied in a good school; he has learned from his master, more thoroughly than most other men of this generation, the secret of the dignity of labor; while he has trained himself to see not only its tragedy, but the gayety to which Millet was ever blind. Mr. Clausen's tillers of the soil work under a soft blue sky, where the white clouds float in a slow, grandiose flight, as they can only in England; his sowers and reapers and gleaners go about their daily task in fields radiant with sunlight. It is a pleasure to be alive in such a sunlit, wind-swept world. He has two little pictures of the kind this year, "Setting up Sheaves" and "Making a Rick," in which a few laborers are grouped statuesquely in a brilliant summer landscape. Mr. Clausen is inspired by Millet, but he works in England, and it always seems to me there is in his pictures something of the spirit of romance that you feel in Mr. Hardy's pastoral novels. Mr. La Thangue is supposed to have studied in the same school, and he does paint much the same subjects. But where Mr. Clausen has looked through the eyes of Millet, Mr. La Thangue has looked through the camera. Not that he ever condescends to use a camera, but there is the brutal realism of the photograph in his ploughboy and horses sauntering down a sunlit lane right out of the canvas, or in his geese fluttering down another lane upon as indiscreet an outing. He can paint with a well-trained brush the actual things before him, but he has not the power to transform them by the magic of poetry.

Of Mr. Edward Stott, I need say but little, as he sends only one canvas to the Academy, reserving for the New Gallery his most important pictures, which I have already described. Mr. Alfred Parsons, though his motives are so different, is as inveterate a realist as Mr. La Thangue. Mr. Alfred East, on the other hand, is so eager to escape the charge of realism that every landscape he paints reveals him in his pose of idealist. He has a sense of composition, but you cannot look at his canvas without being conscious of the effort. Two bright, sunny landscapes by Mr. Mark Fisher are well hung, but, by way of antidote, the third is skied. For the rest, the vagaries of the Academy are as well known to landscape as to portrait painters, and many of the more distinguished prefer to show with the New English Art Club, or in the smaller galleries.

The average of the sculpture—probably because the difficulties frighten away the amateur and the dabbler—is always higher than the average of painting, and this year there are two or three works that stand out in distinct relief. One is Mr. John M. Swan's "Puma and Macaw," a powerful piece of modelling. The puma, with the bird in its mouth, is stealthily creeping away, the lithe body, from the head, with the savage turned-back ears, to the curling tail, making a long sinuous line of great grace and beauty, the movement admirably expressed. Barye could not have surpassed it. Mr. Alfred Gilbert has a Baptismal Font of strikingly original design. It is tall and slender, the alabaster basin supported on delicate pillars of bronze, and the top surmounted by a very lovely little enamelled figure of Christ. Mr. Onslow Ford has evidently been as much oppressed by the difficulties in producing an effective statue of Huxley—it has just been unveiled in South Kensington—as Falguière, in his Balzac, was handicapped by the failure of M. Rodin. The Huxley, like the Balzac, is a seated figure, the official robes answering the same kindly purpose as the famous dressing-gown; and, like the Balzac, it is heavy and shapeless, and not at all impressive. Mr. Frampton and Mr. Pomeroy are also represented, and there are enamels by Mr. Alexander Fisher.

The black-and-white and the water-color rooms are always to be avoided. Apparently, every effort is made not to include the men who are most accomplished in the use of either medium. It will thus be seen that a collection of over two thousand exhibits, in the official headquarters of art in this country, contains less than a dozen portrait and figure subjects, about a dozen landscapes, and half-a-dozen pieces of sculpture worth seeing. One of the smaller rooms would hold them all easily. And it is this annual exhibition of weakness that the English public loves to honor in the Royal Academy.

N. N.

CARDUCCI'S MURATORI.

FLORENCE, May 6, 1900.

On the 20th of October, 1872, the Municipality of Modena inaugurated the first of the nine days' commemoration of the second centenary of Muratori's birth, and Giosuè Carducci, then neither *commendatore* nor Senator, went as guest, not as orator, and gave his impressions in one of those delightful sketches which are so rare in Italy. Among the guests he noted Cesare Cantù—"fine head; resolute, strong, sharp features; looking scarcely fifty, though sixty years of age"; Atto Vannucci, "tall, slightly bent, with a face they call English, while to me it seems that of an honest Tuscan peasant"; and the lofty, martial figure of Gen. Fabrizi. "Worthy of note was it" that while the Mayor and Prefect sat with their hats on, in the church of Vignola, where Muratori was baptized, Cantù, Vannucci, and Fabrizi stood with uncovered heads. After visiting Vignola, "which, like Florence, but with more openings and background, lies at the foot of the Apennines between beautiful hills and rivers, and is fertile in talent (Barozzi, Muratori, and Paradisi were born there), in stupendous cabbages, exquisite fruits, and tempting hams (to me a fine cabbage, perfectly cultivated, is more æsthetic than fifty modern poems, or 1,500 articles of even the Opposition press)," our poet spent three days among the treasures of the museums, archives, and libraries. Then, having examined the relics of Muratori contained in them, and those lent to the Lyceum by the last lineal descendant of the historian, he returned to Bologna "without gifts or banquets," "without seeing the illuminations or hearing the concerts," but sufficiently confirmed in his abiding veneration for Muratori to accept the proposal made by the publisher, S. Lapi, of Città di Castello, that he should supervise the publication of the huge new edition of the 'Rerum Italicarum Scriptores' which is being issued in numbers, now that the Preface is complete.

First Carducci repeats, in the historian's simple, old-fashioned words, his reasons for setting himself to the vast undertaking. The Middle Ages, according to Muratori, had been too much neglected; it was not fair that only the golden times of Greece and Rome should be recorded. The French, the Germans, the Spaniards, the English sought out and preserved all they could discover concerning their past. The Dutch Grevio had collected several volumes of Italian history, and if such works are not signs of genius, they evince two excellent qualities—erudition, and judgment in choosing good and omitting bad matter. This and much more is set forth from 1708 to 1715, when he was between thirty-seven and forty-three years of age (born at Vignola at the fifteenth hour of the 21st of October, 1672), by Antonio Lodovico.

Muratori wrote his 'Reflections on Good Taste in Art and Science,' wherein he defines in great part his intentions and methods for the grand collection 'Rerum Italicarum Scriptores.' Up to 1695 he had worked for the College of Doctors of the Ambrosian Library at Milan; then he was recalled by his "legal lord," Duke Rinaldo I. of Este, to regulate the archives and the library of that princely house. His researches in Milan resulted in four volumes of 'Anecdota Latina'—poems, orations, histories, chronicles of various ages and peoples, selected and illustrated with vast erudition; a volume of 'Anecdota Græca,' epigrams and letters of Gregory Nazianzen and of Julian the Apostate, translated with commentaries. Two volumes of Italian 'Anecdotes' were to have followed, but were absorbed in the vortex of the 'Scriptores.' The archivist and librarian had in 1708 to fling himself into the controversy between the Pope and the Duke of Este as to the rights of dominion over the city of Comacchio and the state of Ferrara; and in defence of the rights of his "Signore" Muratori published five volumes, and wrote many more to prove the antiquity of the house of Este.

Much cordial assistance he received from Apostolo Zeno, the first reformer of melodrama, founder of the first literary journal, historian of Italian literature and poetry, who had set his heart on writing an ample and serious history. He, in 1699, writes to Muratori, whose Latin Anecdotes have much pleased him, giving an outline of his proposed work; saying how he is collecting chronicles from Sicily and the Vatican and there in Venice, having copied the Chronicles of the Doge Dandolo and his continuators, Benintendi and Carisini. He enumerates all the treasures he has accumulated. "Why this large collection? you may ask. To tell the truth, I meditate a vast publication, *Rerum Italicarum Scriptores hactenus desiderati*, even as is done in Germany, England, France, and Spain. Great men who have honored her in letters have never been wanting in our Italy." Muratori helps his friend with manuscripts and collected materials, and when Zeno is summoned to the court of Vienna as poet laureate, successor to Silvio Stampiglio and predecessor of Metastasio, he encourages Muratori to persevere in his researches and publications. "Too long the prejudice that no studies were worth pursuing unless they threw new light on the manners, customs, and institutions of Greece and Rome, prevailed in Italy," so that the centuries following the decline of the Empire were held to contain only vice, horrors, and barbarism. But Muratori considered it a fault of too proud or fastidious minds—nay, an ungrateful thing—to lavish regard on Italy triumphant and victorious, and to turn from her when down-

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trodden and vanquished. In both estates she was our very same mother, and it is the duty of children to learn all about her in evil as in good fortune, in order to gain experience from all times, to find charts of life, to understand how nations rise and fall, the causes, methods, and effects of decadence as of glory, especially when so much of modern society is derived from the blendings of barbarous races. Such thoughts and feelings persuaded and encouraged Muratori to collect in ordinated series of huge volumes all that could be discovered of the history of Italy during the Middle Ages.

After the exhausting period of the Renaissance, a painful weariness, a cold isolation, an arid vanity enveloped the Latin peoples. The ecclesiastical element alone was awakened and aroused by the tempest of the Reformation. Carducci tells of the vast work accomplished in Germany, where all armed themselves to confront and dominate Latin supremacy; then, when Germany rested on her oars, England stept in. France in her most troubled times gave to her historical works the double impress of her devotion to the Church and to Monarchy. Italy, which had collected all the treasures of ancient Greece and Rome, and had given them to the world with lavish generosity, was looked upon as a nation whose part was played out, and in which no vital spark remained. Nevertheless, at the commencement of the eighteenth century some faint light—though whether a reflection of the latest sunset, or a gleam from the future dawn, it is difficult to say—glimmered in Italy. G. B. Caruso (1673-1724) took up the thread of Sicilian history broken off in 1550. Pier Caterino Zeno, brother of the laureate, continued his history of Venetian affairs, while Apostolo Zeno himself, grateful for early services, on quitting Italy left Muratori heir to his youthful scheme, helping him with advice, and sending him all the material accumulated, including the manuscript Chronicles of Dino Compagni.

"Such histories as did appear in Italy were sporadic—like plants sprung up from seeds of former culture long since buried, or dropped by migrating birds, or borne by the wind to solitary heights. Extensive cultivation, generous sowing, grand historical flowering was no longer to be found in Italy; example, motive, impulse, all came to us from without. Italy, as long as she saw living history develop in herself or from herself, well or badly, contemplated it, wrapt in the mirage of antiquity which the deathless magic of the Renaissance kept before her eyes as a continuation, in perpetual transformation, of Roman history. She contemplated it and represented it to herself and to others in the spirit and the form of those times. . . . No one, with the exception, perhaps, of Guicciardini, acquired or cared for the science of facts. Our great ones of the fifth century rejoiced complacently in their acute, self-sufficing philosophy, their superbly draped narration. When history was no longer written in Italy, when the energy of the country went abroad, attracted by the flame of civil war, or by the turmoil of political agitations in Spain, Flanders, Germany, France, even by the fervor of religious missions in Asia, then were written by Italians histories of foreigners in fifth-century style—bolder in words, but less intensely thought out. The scientific conception of the general history of Italy was not progressive, but retrogressive."

"But Italy," continues Carducci, "so eloquent in narrating the story of foreign nations, lost consciousness of herself in her own, or rather took refuge in the cosmopolitanism of science. Science was the one occupation of Italy in the seventeenth century. After the close of that century and during the first half of the eighteenth, while her scientific acquisitions passed to other nations and were by them applied and amplified, from France, Germany, Holland, came back to Italy examples and impulses for fresh work on the 'new antiquity' (if I may be allowed the expression) of the Middle Ages and on history; came during that brief halt between two eras to men who, after the disintegration of the seventeenth century, accustomed themselves to the philosophical ideas of antiquity without rhetoric, to the erudition of the Renaissance without scholastics, to the jurisprudence of the Empire without sophistry. These examples and impulses affected such men as G. B. Vico, L. A. Muratori, and Pietro Giannone. While Leibnitz brought the search-light of politics to bear upon his inquiries, and Mabillon that of diplomacy and criticism on his publications, Muratori set himself to apply the aids and instruments recovered by Italy from foreign nations to a new work—Italy's own—the 'Rerum Italicarum Scriptores,' the mightiest mass of national history ever published in Europe up to that date.

"First he clearly defined his materials and the limit set to his work: chronicles, historic documents, narrations relating to Italian affairs from 500 to 1500 A. D.; from the commencement of the sixth to the close of the fifteenth century—*i. e.*, from the decline of Literature, and especially of History, to the highest point in the refulgence of both. Omitting what formed the greater portion of German collections—the historians of the fifth century whose fame was world-wide; admitting only such humanists of the fourth century as were unpublished or but dimly known, he set himself to collate his printed and manuscript material, publishing and republishing after comparison with new texts, adding emendations and commentaries to the printed matter, then publishing the manuscript with prefaces and brief, clear notes to elucidate the text, explain facts, and add such historical notices as were necessary. One hundred and sixteen new editions of works already printed were thus republished; two thousand chronicles, histories, stories, poems, statutes, diplomas were by Muratori brought to light for the first time, from archives belonging to families, to cities, to bishoprics, to monasteries, to chapters, to public and private libraries."

Carducci proceeds to narrate all the difficulties and disappointments encountered by the undaunted explorer—how the Genoese and the Lucchese denied him access to their archives; how Victor Amadeus II. broke his twice-pledged promise, adding that he had suppressed a chronicle of Saluzzo, much desired by Muratori, "as it contained things neither decorous nor useful to our interests"; how the Vatican and all adherents of the papal predominance gave him a Roland for his Oliver, etc. But the 'Scriptores' grew in strength and size. One of its novelties was the admission of "vulgar" chronicles—vulgar not merely for the rough speech in which the Latin people, reawakened, proclaimed their advent, but for the actual barrenness of the things narrated.

"'But this very simplicity,' observes this most learned collector, in words which savor of a new order of criticism—'this very simplicity and popular way of describing things that happen has its value: neither art nor coloring is there to veil the truth, and we find details which we are interested in knowing, yet which writers of greater talent would have omitted.' Muratori did not attain to the new critical method—he retained the dry rigidity of his age; but he abjured legends and fables, mutilated and threw away all the useless portions of chronicles, history, stories. Such were the methods prescribed and adhered to by Muratori in his vast collection." J. W. M.

NOTES ON JAPAN.—II.

KOBE, April 20, 1900.

The statesmen of Japan are not slow to see that relief from a prospective overcrowding of population can legitimately come only from those social and moral influences which check the birth-rate by raising the standard of intellectual life. This idea is largely coming to influence the educational system of the Empire, especially as related to the education of women. At present the provision for the education of girls is far below that for boys. Beginning at six, the girls have four years of preparatory work, and then there are six years more open to them in the middle high schools, which correspond to our grammar grade. Naturally, therefore, their education would be finished at sixteen, and then the Japanese girl as naturally marries and at once becomes a factor in increasing the population of the already overburdened Empire. Of course it is out of the question to prevent this by any arbitrary methods. The remedy lies in raising the intellectual standards of the common people, both men and women, especially of the women.

Strenuous efforts are being made to do this, and with fair promise of success. According to the last educational report, there were 4,083,430 male and 3,647,011 female children of school age. Of these there were 3,066,278 male and only 1,716,483 female children in schools. But even this is a great increase in the ratio of female children in school over that of a few years ago. In the normal schools, also, the proportion is still more striking. While the males number 1,061, the females number only 224. In the ordinary higher schools for women there was, however, a gratifying increase from 2,026 in 1894 to 6,406 in 1897, but these figures would have to be greatly increased now, for the growth of the interest in the education of women has been increasingly rapid the last two years. This appears in the propositions before the Diet for the enlargement of such schools, in the increased attendance at the many private schools maintained by the various missionary societies (whose work in this direction is more and more appreciated by the Japanese), and in the societies for the promotion of literary culture among Japanese women. One such correspondence society has several thousand members, scattered over the Empire, and publishes compendious summaries of information for the guidance of readers. In numerous addresses on scientific subjects given in Tokio and other large cities the presence of Japanese ladies of high rank was particularly notable.

The schools in general throughout the Empire are the pride of the people, but it has taken some years to provide a suitable number of efficient teachers. A visit to the laboratories of the schools of several of the interior towns has, however, given me a high appreciation of the thoroughness of the education which is being provided for Japanese youth. The apparatus and working museums are fully equal to what one finds in places of equal size in the United States, while the preparation on the part of the teachers is probably somewhat more thorough. Certainly the geological and chemical instructors who accompanied us to the mountains were most thoroughly informed in their departments—not only familiar with local facts, but having a wide knowledge of the world, and minute information concerning the many problems upon which we conversed.

This thorough equipment for their special work is accompanied by a simplicity of character that is as charming as it is un-

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usual. This was illustrated in a ride of some distance in a car with the professor of chemistry and physics to whom I have referred. When we had about exhausted our capacity for conversation on scientific subjects, on account partly of our imperfect understanding of each other's language without an interpreter, the professor opened his travelling bag, and drew out a carefully wrapped small parcel, which proved to be a mouth-organ of German manufacture. He also unrolled a small music-book used in the schools, whereupon he entertained me with playing "Auld Lang Syne," "There is a happy land," and a few other similar tunes. He was delighted to learn that I knew the words of "There is a happy land," and insisted that I should write them out for him. I afterwards found that these tunes, with "Marching through Georgia," are special favorites all over Japan, and that the music of the mouth-organ is specially prized by the children, who are often good performers upon it.

At several places I have had the privilege of meeting the leading educators, officials, and philanthropists of the Empire, and am deeply impressed with the strength and depth of the movement which is lifting Japan to the level of Western civilization. The civilization which they have borrowed from the West is not a veneer, as many have represented. The Japanese are building war-ships and fortifying their harbors after the most approved style, and are seeing to the organization and equipment of their army and navy (as their late war with China demonstrated) with all the thoroughness of Germany, and they are doing this with little aid from foreign engineers. The few foreign consulting engineers complain that they are consulted so little that life is a burden. In the interior, extensive works are planned and executed everywhere by native engineers to protect the fields from the devastating floods which descend with terrific force from the mountain slopes. Some of their mistakes have been serious, but they prefer to trust to their own ability, and experience proves a good teacher.

One is everywhere impressed with the vast amount of labor and engineering skill that was bestowed in former times upon fortifications and irrigating enterprises. The more than one hundred fortresses surrounding as many castles where the leading Daimios lived, represent an enormous amount of labor and an equal amount of skill in adaptation to the defensive warfare of the time. In the aggregate the walls and moats exceed in amount that of the Chinese wall. All their national energy is now turned towards the accomplishment of more beneficent purposes. In the olden times the family life was so strong that there were no orphans. Some relative was found to adopt each waif. But now this product of Western civilization is appearing in increasing numbers. An orphan asylum, under Japanese management, with all the natural paraphernalia of such an institution, was an interesting object of inspection in Okayama. There were here nearly two hundred children, under the best of discipline, receiving instruction in industrial as well as intellectual branches. They are also following our example in the establishment of reform-schools for juvenile criminals, and in all other prison reforms. I found in Tokio two Japanese who have devoted all their energies to the work of caring for ex-convicts. In this they received the generous support of many noble Japanese families. More than eight hundred prisoners have been helped to independent means of employment, and nearly all had become respected members of society.

One can but be interested in studying the effects of the gradual introduction of labor-saving machinery into this dense population, and of the introduction of the gold standard which was adopted three years ago. The general testimony is that, notwithstanding the introduction of machinery and steam transportation, wages have risen during the last twenty-five years about 75 per cent., and that reckoned on a gold basis. But even so, they seem to us ridiculously low, especially in official appointments. Postmen receive from four to six and a half dollars (in our currency) per month in the city, and from two to three in the country, and policemen only six dollars. But in both cases their uniforms are furnished by the Government. Regular teachers in the elementary schools receive five dollars and a half per month, and in the middle schools seven dollars and fifty cents. In ordinary occupations, head carpenters receive from forty to fifty cents per day, under-carpenters from thirty to forty, while ordinary laborers receive from twenty to twenty-five cents. Trained nurses get thirty cents a day and their board.

But the prices of articles of necessity have nearly doubled during the last ten years, notwithstanding the change in standard. This, however, is partly due to the fact that the gold standard was adopted by bringing everything to the silver standard as it was in 1896. But prices have risen rapidly since that time, thus demonstrating the fallacy of the silver agitators. The stability given to business has led to a rapid development of industries. This rapid rise, both in wages and in the price of living, must speedily bring about great social changes. Tokio alone has 50,000 jinrikisha men, whose sole dependence for a livelihood is upon pulling these convenient vehicles. The authorities look with trembling upon the effect upon these of the introduction of street-cars, though the streets of a Japanese city are ill adapted to electric cars. They are so narrow and crowded that in Kioto a boy runs ahead at every street crossing to give the alarm. The jinrikisha, moreover, is so advantageous, in being able to come to every door, that the result is likely to be street-cars and jinrikishas both, without diminution of demand for either.

A month in Japan is, of course, insufficient to give one more than a superficial insight into the complicated movements which are in progress everywhere. But it is doubtful if any one has more than a superficial knowledge of the course of events in the Empire, so rapidly are the changes proceeding. Prof. Chamberlain, who has been here thirty years, says significantly that he has already seen four hundred years of national life. I look almost with dismay at the prospect before me during the summer of plunging from this seething cauldron of activity into the stolidity of China and the undeveloped resources of Siberia.

G. Frederick Wright.

Correspondence.

THE DUTCH PROFESSORS' MANIFESTO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The distribution broadcast through the universities of this country of a manifesto by the professors of the universities in Holland, in favor of the Transvaal and Orange Free State Boers, would not in itself be a cause of offence to such of us as are not of the Boer party, were it not that the manifesto deliberately falsifies facts, and misrepresents the issues involved in the present war. For these reasons I beg the privilege of replying to some of these misstatements, as, through your columns, I can the most readily reach a large number of my colleagues in other universities.

The Dutch professors quote the Declaration of Independence. It is the worst thing they could do, for every word of that Declaration condemns them and justifies the British. "We hold these truths to be self-evident," says the Declaration, "that *all* men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights, that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." The *Grondwet* expressly lays down the doctrine that colored men are not equals of the white. The Transvaal oligarchy has refused the right of representation to the Uitlanders, and has endeavored to deceive the civilized world into the belief that it was ready to grant the franchise on the most liberal conditions, while, as a matter of fact, the very latest bill passed by the Volksraad rendered the franchise more illusory than before. The Transvaal oligarchy has obstructed the naturalization of foreigners after inviting them to come in and settle in the land, promising, if they did so, that they should have equal rights. It has obstructed the administration of justice, passing laws, without due notice to the people, for the express purpose of robbing citizens of their undoubted rights. It has made the judges of the Supreme Court dependent on its will alone for the tenure of their office, and for the amount of the payment of their salaries, thus depriving the foreigner of the last and sole safeguard against "absolute despotism." It has protected the assailants and murderers of the Uitlanders from punishment, sometimes by mock trial, sometimes by relief from the absurdly light punishment imposed. It has deprived men of the right of petition by declaring that those who petition to have a law changed or amended, are rebels to the law, and deserving of punishment. It has violated its pledged word and the solemn engagements into which it voluntarily entered. And now the two Republics, so called, having failed in their attempt to drive the English into the sea, finding that they did not, as President Steyn boasted, "hold England in the hollow of their hand," are endeavoring to excite, on utterly false grounds, sympathy in the breasts of the Americans by claiming to fight for the principles of 1776 when, in point of fact, these principles are of all the most cordially detested by them, and would never be applied did the fortune of war enable them to regain the opportunities for tyranny which they formerly enjoyed.

Nor let it be forgotten that the two so-called republics were the aggressors, and at

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once proceeded to invade, plunder, and annex British territory.—Yours sincerely,

F. C. DE SUMICHRAST.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., May 28, 1900.

Notes.

A perhaps unique corporation in the publishers' line is the new Boston firm of Noyes, Platt & Co., which is to serve as a go-between for Curtis & Cameron and Small, Maynard & Co., "in the publication of certain books on art and illustrated books," of a high class. Its first imprint will be given to the official illustrated catalogue of the United States Fine Arts exhibit at the Paris Exposition. There will be forty-eight full-page half-tone reproductions of select American pictures, statuary, etc.

Anglo-American interests are catered to in two books about to be issued by John Lane, viz., 'The Rhodesians,' by Stracey Chambers, and 'The Filipino Martyrs: A Story of the Crime of the 4th February, 1899,' by Richard Brinsley Sheridan, an English barrister who visited Manila after the American occupation.

'A White Woman in Central Africa,' Helen Caddick's account of her transcontinental journey; 'Personal Recollections,' by H. Sutherland Edwards; 'With Dante in Paradise,' and 'How Dante Climbed the Mountain,' by Rose Emily Selfe; 'The Story of the Heavens,' by Sir Robert Stawell Ball; 'The Coming of the Kilogram; or, The Battle of the Standards,' by H. O. Arnold-Forster, M. P.; 'A Course of Landscape-Painting in Water-Colors,' by J. MacWhirter, R.A.; 'Tree-Painting in Water-Colors,' by W. H. J. Boot; Royal Academy Pictures, 1900, in five parts; with illustrated Guides to Paris, London, and the Clyde, are on the May list of announcements of Cassell & Co.

Dodd, Mead & Co. will publish directly Mrs. Meynell's monograph on Ruskin.

'Dwight L. Moody: Impressions and Facts,' by the late Henry Drummond, with an introduction by George Adam Smith, will be published immediately by McClure, Phillips & Co.

The *Cornhill Booklet* projected by Alfred Bartlett, 21 Cornhill, Boston, will contain monthly "some complete piece of literature, either a reprint of some scarce and little-known work, or original matter."

Two books by women come to us with a certain timeliness, 'Paris as It Is,' by Katherine De Forest (Doubleday, Page & Co.), and 'A Woman's Paris' (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.). Miss De Forest's first chapter is entitled "The Charm of Paris," and such might well have been her general title. Certainly a great deal of that charm has found its way between the covers of her volume. This is, says the preface, "perhaps less a guide-book than a dream-book. Certainly it was written not so much to give information as to interpret the genius of Paris." The author has lived long in the city she describes, and has used her eyes to advantage. Her "interpretation" is interesting, and her account of many phases of Parisian life unusually accurate. Of the proof-reading this cannot be said; printer's errors, particularly in the French, abound.

The anonymous author of 'A Woman's Paris' has had a much more practical object in view. Hers is not a guide-book either, but a book of guidance. It is intended to supply a kind of information not to be found elsewhere, and adapted to the wants of ladies visiting Paris, not as tourists, but as residents for longer or shorter periods. It discusses with liveliness and sense such topics as hotels and *pensions*, advises housekeeping, goes at length into the questions of servants, marketing, prices, *pourboires*, cabs, shops, dressmakers, climate, language, theatres, and French society. To bring it up to date, there are a couple of chapters at the end devoted to the Exposition and Exposition Prices, but here the author has to confess that most of the instruction contained in the rest of the volume is inapplicable to Exposition time, and that her scheme of modest and delightful living in Paris is not to be practised this year. We fancy that, if she gave it frankly, her advice to ladies of small means contemplating going to Paris this summer would be much like that of *Punch* to the young man contemplating matrimony. Both books are illustrated with small but fairly executed half-tone plates from photographs.

Miss Hurll's 'Millet' in the Riverside Art Series (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is the best of the series so far, both as to text and as to quality of reproduction in the illustrations. Miss Hurll deserves credit for her refusal to sentimentalize and to see in Millet's work what he distinctly disclaimed having put there; and her comment that Markham's "impassioned protest against 'the degradation of labor' . . . has nothing to do with the picture" is in the right vein.

Mr. W. W. Jacobs's 'Many Cargoes' disclosed a small but distinctly original vein of humor, which he has subsequently worked with much success, and still continues to develop. 'A Master of Craft' (Frederick A. Stokes Company), his latest novel, possesses a most intricate plot, in which the personages are old friends under new names, acting and speaking exactly as sailormen on Thames freighters have always done in his stories. Those to whom his previous books have given pleasure will doubtless enjoy this one, and in any event it is perfectly wholesome fooling; but the subject is in danger of becoming exhausted by him.

G. P. Putnam's Sons publish the memoirs of Gen. Keifer (2 vols., 8vo), under the title of 'Slavery and Four Years of War.' The first part is an outline of the history of slavery in the United States, covering 157 pages. The author's own military experience in the civil war follows, with his observations on campaigns in which he had a part and officers with whom he served. Few had a more active war experience than his. Beginning as Major of the Third Ohio Infantry in April, 1861, he was in McClellan's first campaign in West Virginia, next with Ormsby Mitchell's division in Middle Tennessee, and with Buell in the retreat to Louisville, Ky., in 1862, and in the battle of Perryville. Made Colonel of the One Hundred and Tenth Ohio, he returned to West Virginia, and was under Milroy in the operations in the Shenandoah Valley in 1863. His regiment joined the Sixth Corps in the autumn, and from that time Col. Keifer served in that corps, commanding a brigade. He was therefore in nearly all the bloody work of the Potomac army till Lee's final surrender. He proved himself a brave and intelligent officer, and was brevetted Brigadier-General. The personal narrative of such a service contains, as it cannot fail to do, much interesting and valuable matter. The appendices, besides a brief autobiography, treat of his subsequent career in Congress, as Speaker of the House of Representatives, and his return to military life in the Spanish war, in which, however, he saw no active field-work.

Mr. S. R. Bottone's 'Wireless Telegraphy and Hertzian Waves' (Whittaker & Co.), otherwise not a reliable book, has the peculiar merit of describing, in every detail, how a beginner can construct for himself all the apparatus. A mechanical turn is one qualification for a modern electrician; but it will not go far without it be backed by an intellect that will not falter before the most complicated mathematical problem. Mr. Bottone, writing a little later than Kerr and Fahie, mentions a few inventions that those writers could not know.

M. Charles Le Goffic, writing in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for May on "The Panceltic Movement," shows to what extent the Celtic race, in its several homes, has been affected by that strong feeling for national or ethnical relationship which is a characteristic, more especially, of modern times. The essay is in part historical. The author includes in his survey not only Ireland, Scotland, Wales, Cornwall, the Isle of Man, and Brittany, but also the Celtic communities which have resulted from emigration in other parts of the world. He thus presents us with a well-nigh complete and very readable study of the Celtic question. Such reunions as the Eisteddfod, which met at Cardiff in July last, and the greater congress of Dublin, planned for the near future under the auspices of the Panceltic League, have for their immediate object (as expressed by Lord Castletown) "the manifestation, to the entire world, of their [the people represented] desire to preserve their nationality and to coöperate in the preservation and development of the treasures of language, literature, art, and music bequeathed to them by their common ancestors." That other aspirations and other results are not for ever precluded, seems evident from M. Le Goffic's *exposé*.

A further fragment of the Hebrew text of Ecclesiasticus has been found by E. R. Adler, who reports the particulars in the *Athenæum*. This remnant is evidently a part of the collection of manuscripts belonging to the Ginezah in Cairo, and seems to belong to the manuscript of the Cambridge edition. At any rate, it exactly fills out the lacuna of that manuscript. This unexpected discovery justifies the hope that the whole text will yet be discovered. Such, at any rate, is the expectation of no less an authority than Noeldeke, in his essay on the Hebrew Ecclesiasticus in Stade's *Zeitschrift* (1900, No. I.).

The *Hochschul-Nachrichten* publishes the surprising though well authenticated news that the juristic faculty of the University of Vienna has formally requested of the Ministry of Education that women be admitted as regular students to all the lectures and examinations in that department. But the faculty goes still further in asking that women who have passed the required state examinations shall enjoy the right of practising as advocates and notaries, and of entering any branch of the legal profession in which their employment is not positively impracticable.

Switzerland did pioneer work in making it possible for women to secure a university education in Europe, and that little repub-

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lic is still the most liberal in the privileges it accords in this direction. In the five universities, Basle, Bern, Geneva, Lausanne, and Zurich, women are admitted on a perfect equality with men, while in the sixth and last university, Freiburg, they are admitted to the faculties as "hearers." Recently published official reports show that, of the total attendance at the Swiss universities, nearly one-fourth are women, or 1,026 out of 4,611. As has been the case all along, Russia sends the largest contingent of matriculated women students, namely, about two-thirds, or 422, and of these, again, 326 are students of medicine. It is interesting, in this connection, to note that there seems to be but little danger in Europe, at any rate, of the professional women crowding out the men. The latest reports state that in Berlin there are only three women physicians; and the Government reports of Switzerland, where for twenty-six years the practice of medicine has been open to women, state that there are only twenty-six women doctors in the whole country, as against more than 2,000 male physicians.

The bulletin of the Central National Library at Florence for April 30 contains a description of the happy effects produced on infirm paper and parchment by Dr. Schill's solution, first published last September at Dresden. It is injurious neither to ink nor to colors, and permits disinfection. It furnishes a new, impervious surface that may be written on and the writing expunged. Bindings, too, are rendered more durable by it. The compound is known commercially as "Zapon," and it is to be had at three marks the litre of Otto Winkler, Uferstrasse 8, Leipzig, along with the necessary apparatus and instructions.

In the current Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society, Mr. John T. Hassam concludes his painstaking biographical sketches of the Boston Registers of Deeds (1735-1900). Like that published two years ago, they abound in curious pictures of the times. The office of Register has always been political, though it has been filled for long terms. Ezekiel Goldthwait was up for reëlection in 1771, when Sam Adams ran against him, but without success. The two men afterwards were appointed on a committee with John Hancock and others to make representations to the Governor concerning the Boston Massacre. Later, Goldthwait was more and more a Loyalist, and, to his honor, was one of the addressers of Gov. Hutchinson, on the latter's departure for England, never to return. He also signed the address of welcome to Hutchinson's successor, Gen. Gage. Oddly, a fellow-addresser, in both cases, was ancestor of Andrew Cazenau, who became Register in 1870. Josiah Henshaw was disturbed in his tenure by the demand for rotation in office, coupled with pleas of poverty by and in behalf of his competitor. This was a sorry spectacle, as Mr. Hassam points out. Three Allines, father, son, and grandson, held the office successively, and Andrew Cazenau was a cousin to the last.

The *Geographical Journal* for May contains some interesting facts about the people of the Shan states north of Burmah, by Mr. F. W. Carey, an officer in the Chinese customs. The object of one of his journeys was to obtain material for the Paris Exposition. He found the greatest difficulty in getting a complete woman's costume, especially the remarkable head-dress of the Akkas, in which "most of their superstitious beliefs seem centred." When the French first established a post at Meng Wu, there were several Akka tribes living in the district; but they were so much disturbed at the Resident's obtaining a dress and hat that they all fled from the French territory. In another district the women are obliged to wear colored cloth gaiters, "as without them it is believed they would be able to fly away, leaving their husbands and sweethearts sorrowful." Among their weapons is an elephant-gun of native make, with a recoil so great, when fired, that, "to prevent losing the gun in the thick undergrowth of the forests, one end of a long cord is attached to the stock, the other being fastened round their bodies." Mount Kenya in British East Africa is described by Mr. H. J. Mackinder, who made the first successful ascent to the summit last September. On the journey up he passed through an almost unknown region, in which were "square miles of standing maize, neatly divided by slight furrows into rectangular half-acre plots, each, we were told, valued for sale at the price of a goat." Both articles are profusely illustrated and accompanied with maps.

Under the appropriate title of "From the Cape to Cairo," Mr. E. S. Grogan describes to the Royal Geographical Society his recent remarkable journey through Africa. His route as far as the northern end of Lake Tanganyika was over comparatively familiar ground. Between this and Lake Albert Edward was a country with superb scenery, in which civilizing influences were conspicuous in the terracing of the hills for cultivation, rudimentary efforts at irrigation, enclosing of villages and cultivated lands by hedges, and even the formation of artificial reservoirs for watering cattle. He passed over a plain where, owing to the porous nature of the soil, there was no water; yet there was an enormous population who obtained the necessary water by tapping the stems of the banana palms. Near the north end of the Albert Lake he observed some ape-like creatures leering at him from behind some banana palms, and with some difficulty his Ruanda guide induced one to come out and be inspected. "He was a tall man, with the long arms, pendant pouch, and short legs of the ape, pronouncedly microcephalous and prognathous." The stamp of the brute was so strong on these people that Mr. Grogan would place them lower in the human scale than any other natives he had seen in Africa. His 400 miles' tramp through the swamp region of the Upper Nile, especially the last ten days' march, was terrible. "Far as the eye could reach, one vast shimmering waste of burnt reed, sun-baked mud, and marabout storks. . . . No trees, no bushes, no grass," and, of course, no natives. Fortunately he fell in with the English sudd-cutting expedition, and his troubles were over.

The coal famine in Europe is the principal subject treated in the Consular Reports for May. The extreme scarcity and high prices of coal in Great Britain have "practically suspended" for a time the supply of coal to Germany, which in 1899 amounted to 5,000,000 tons. This failure comes at an unfortunate time, "when most of the steel works, foundries, ship-yards, and machine-shops of this country are filled with orders which will absorb their entire product for several months to come." In Russia the rapid extension of railways and the development of certain manufactures has completely outstripped the coal-mining industries, which are hampered by insufficient means of transportation. It is said that the Russian Government has sought to relieve the pressure by suspending for an indefinite period the usual prohibitory duty of $2.80 per ton on coal, and the same course has been proposed in France. The amount of coal exported from Great Britain in 1898 was 36,500,000 tons, while that of this country for the last fiscal year was only 5,000,000 tons.

The Department of the Classics at Harvard University announces the establishment of the Charles Eliot Norton Fellowship in Greek Studies, the founder being Mr. James Loeb, of the class of 1888, from personal affection to Prof. Norton and as a tribute to his eminent services to the cause of archæology. The annual income will be $600, and award will be made without regard to the financial means of competitors. Incumbency involves a year's study at the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, with a selected subject and a summary monograph thereon. The theses for the first award to be made in the spring of 1901 are now published, and applications for admission to candidacy must be made not later than November 1, 1900, to Prof. Morris H. Morgan, chairman of the department.

The University of Cambridge (Eng.) Summer Extension Meeting will be held from August 2 to August 27, 1900, and the general subject of the lectures will be "Life and Thought in England in the Nineteenth Century." The several divisions are National Development, Studies in Literature, Scientific Progress, Theology, Education, and Biographical Studies. One American appears upon the list, which embraces not a few eminent names.

The Academic Senate of the University of Athens, in a recent extraordinary session, decided to arrange for an international archæological congress, to be held either next fall or next spring in that city. All the leading universities, academies of sciences, and archæological institutes in the world are to be invited to send representatives; also the foreign schools in Athens, of which the German has recently celebrated its twenty-fifth and the French its fiftieth anniversary.

—The Faculty of the Literary Department of the University of Michigan has just secured the Regents' approval of its revision of the requirements for admission. Hitherto the requirements have been more or less complicated, falling into groups corresponding to the different degrees, A.B., Ph.B., B.S., and B.L. The new requirements are more elastic. The aim is to give the schools, though of different character, a more nearly equal opportunity of preparing students for college. What is demanded is a certain amount and a certain quality, but not the same kind, of preparation. "Fifteen units are required for admission. A unit means one subject pursued for not less than four periods a week throughout a school year. The following subjects must be presented by all candidates: English, 3 units; mathematics (algebra and geometry), 3 units; physics, 1 unit. In addition to these required subjects, eight units must be presented selected from the following list. These eight units must include two units of either Latin, French, or German. The annexed figures

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indicate the number of units for which each subject may be counted: Greek, 2; Latin, 2 or 4; French, 2 or 4; German, 2 or 4; English Literature, 1; History, 1, 2, or 3; Chemistry, 1; Botany, 1; Zoölogy, 1; Biology (half a year each of Botany and of Zoology), 1; Physiography, 1." Students enter the University, not a particular course. Only the following note indicates that a particular degree may be aimed at: "Students who intend to become candidates for the degree of A.B. should present two units of Greek and four units of Latin. Students who intend to become candidates for the degree of Ph.B. should present four units of Latin." A remarkable feature of the action was the ease with which it was carried through. It was felt that the time was ripe for the change, and there was no real objection to it. This simplification of the entrance requirements will doubtless be followed in the fall by nearly, if not fully, as harmonious action with reference to the reducing of the bachelor degrees from four to one, or at most two.

—In the years 1853-60, the Arundel Society issued a series of woodcuts after Giotto's frescoes in the Arena Chapel at Padua, accompanied by an explanatory notice written by John Ruskin. The work has not been republished until now, when it appears in "a new and more complete form, with the advantage of modern methods of reproduction," under the title, 'Giotto and his Works in Padua' (London: George Allen; New York: Scribners). The thirty-eight large engravings of scenes from the life of Christ and of the Virgin are here replaced by very good half-tones, while to these have been added reproductions of the "Christ in Glory," the "Last Judgment," and the fourteen allegorical figures of Virtues and Vices. To the text, otherwise unchanged, have been added a few notes, and extracts from other works by Ruskin and from Lord Lindsay bearing upon the frescoes not included in the original publication. Mr. Ruskin's notices are of no great importance, being often whimsical and sometimes nugatory, and are chiefly interesting as affording instances of his faculty for seeing in a picture what was never there, as he so wonderfully did in his account of the Tintorettos in the Scuola di San Rocco. Take, for one instance, this comment on "The Expulsion from the Temple": "The raising of the right hand, not holding any scourge, resembles the action afterwards adopted by Orcagna, and finally by Michael Angelo in his 'Last Judgment'; and my belief is, that Giotto considered this act of Christ's as partly typical of the final judgment, the Pharisees being placed on the left hand, and the disciples on the right." The omission of the scourge is, in reality, a blunder of either the draughtsman or the engraver of the Arundel Society's cut, as it is plainly present in the half-tone reproduction; and Giotto's treatment of the subject is of the plainest and most matter-of-fact kind.

—Music-sellers report a great Chopin "boom." Both Paderewski and De Pachmann devoted their farewell concerts entirely to that composer, whose pieces, moreover, predominated on most of their programmes, as they do at piano recitals in general. The publication of Mr. Huneker's 'Chopin: The Man and his Music' has added fuel to the flames, and now comes more of it in the form of a new edition of Liszt's 'Life of Chopin,' translated in full for the first time by John Broadhouse (Scribners). The first English edition appeared in 1877. It is well to have a reprint of this famous book, though it cannot be said that the restored portions of the text add much to its value. In all probability they were not written by Liszt anyway, but by the Princess Wittgenstein, Liszt's correspondence with whom (in French) has recently been published by Breitkopf & Härtel. She was his friend for forty years, and assisted him in writing most of his literary essays. Sometimes he walked up and down the room dictating to her; at other times he merely discussed the ideas and plan of an article, leaving its elaboration to her; while not infrequently they sat together at the desk enveloped by the fumes of the cigars they both smoked. Paragraphs devoted to special musical questions Liszt always wrote himself, and these are by far the best things in his essays. The long, rhapsodical episodes of rather empty rhetoric which occur here and there, are undoubtedly additions by the Princess. To the book on Chopin she contributed the interesting remarks on Polish national dances and festivals. This book is not a model biography, as there are not a few errors in regard to dates and facts; but the errors are of no great consequence, and are far outweighed by the merits of the book, which has the charm peculiar to the writings of one genius on another. Liszt was the first to take up the cudgels for Chopin against those who fancied that he could not be really great because he wrote only short pieces. He called attention to the fact that Petrarch is remembered by his sonnets, not his long poem on Africa. He pointed out what was epoch-making in Chopin's style, and characterized his polonaises and mazurkas in terms that have never been equalled. He also gave an admirable definition of the tempo rubato (p. 83) and of the Polish *zal*, "which expresses the entire range of emotions engendered by intense regret, through every shade of feeling from hatred to repentance," and which "colors all the compositions of Chopin." The pages devoted to *zal* appear to have given Liszt great satisfaction; for he refers in one of his letters to the Princess to "la suite des épreuves de 'Chopin' avec le 'zal,' qui me plaît infiniment dans l'impression."

—Prof. Pietro Orsi, of Venice, has written for "The Story of the Nations Series" a popular account of 'Modern Italy, 1748-1898' (Putnam). There is no organic reason for pitching on the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle as the date from which to begin the story of the Italian Risorgimento. That great historical movement, culminating in the conversion of Rome into the capital of the kingdom of Italy, had three distinct objects—liberty, independence, and union; but until the French Revolution swept away the old barriers, not one of these came into play as a political motive. The reforms of the benevolent despots during the middle of the eighteenth century had no more causal relation with the Risorgimento than William the Third's milder treatment of the people of Massachusetts had with the Declaration of Independence. Accordingly the early part of Prof. Orsi's book presents a batch of details which have no great relevance to the main subject. When he comes to the Risorgimento itself, he writes pleasantly and clearly, in a genuinely popular style, which disarms serious criticism. The sternest critic cannot affirm that a reader unfamiliar with the subject could not get from these pages a generally fair acquaintance with it; but he would hardly get a vivid impression of the chief actors, nor of the vital political motives and actions. Prof. Orsi has not freed himself from the dithyrambic impulse which besets most of his countrymen when they write on this theme. But, on the whole, our verdict is favorable. The chapter giving an outline of Italian affairs since 1870 will be found particularly useful, as will that which follows it on contemporary artists and writers; for these are matters about which accurate information comes but slowly to a foreigner. Whoever imagines that Italy has at present no writers should run over Sig. Orsi's lists, from which, we judge, no important name has been omitted. A large number of well-chosen portraits and views illustrate the book, but the process work in the copy at hand is badly done. Mary A. Vialls, the translator, does not always convert the flowing Italian into easy-going English, and occasionally she stumbles over proper names. In the title of Chapter I., for example, "Italy after Aquisgrana," we have a form which, so far as the present writer is aware, has never been used in English to designate Charlemagne's old capital.

—The Asiatic Society of Japan issues part 4 of volume xxvii. of its Transactions, with papers by the Rev. Clay MacCauley and Dr. W. G. Aston. That "ignorance is bliss" seems doubly true in that the former writer was unaware, when he began his task, that the English barrister Mr. F. V. Dickins had already put the 'Hyakunin-Isshiu' into English. So, happily for us, the American in Japan, with the resources of scholarship possible to assemble now, thirty years after Mr. Dickins's attempt, which was made under many limitations, has done into good English these 'Single Songs of a Hundred Poets.' An elaborate introduction, occupying thirty-one pages, prepares the new and refreshes the old student of Japanese poetry for the one hundred and fifty-five pages of text (in Roman script), English translation, commentary, historical annotation, interlinear, literal, and free translation, with analyses and indexing, that follow. This century of poems is the most popular of all the many collections among the Japanese, and their text and metres are made familiar in the household game of cards. Japanese poetry had its origin in a prehistoric age, and reached its culminating excellence a thousand years ago. Its realm is as isolated from the life of to-day as was old Japan among the nations. The profoundest foreign scholars declare that the poetry has "neither rhyme, assonance, alliteration, accentual stress, quantity, nor parallelism." Mr. MacCauley is not so dogmatic, even hoping that "Japanese poetry will come under the same stimulus that has vivified and started forward their sciences and their other modes of mental energy." He also modestly declares that "the real charm of these dainty bits of verse will for ever elude the quest of one who, foreign to the Japanese people and their language, seeks to discover it and to show it to the world." Reading again these ancient poems, enshrining so many mental images dear to the islanders, and first collected in the thirteenth cen-

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tury, and familiar as we are with other renderings, we heartily congratulate the translator and all readers of English that they are now accessible. Of the hundred poems, twenty-five treat of Nature, twenty-nine of Sentiment, and forty-six of Love. Dr. Aston's note deals with the Tori-wi, or Shinto gateway, which he believes to have been in origin a foreign importation, as one who knows this scholar's theories might predict before reading.

TILLE'S YULE AND CHRISTMAS.

Yule and Christmas: Their Place in the Germanic Year. By Alexander Tille, Ph.D. London: David Nutt. 1899. Pp. 218.

The contention of the present book is for the originally non-Germanic character of the Yule-tide festival, which in modern times has centred in the celebration of Christmas on the 25th day of December. To carry his argument to a conclusion, the author necessarily takes into consideration the various problems connected with the Germanic year as he conceives it—the three-score-day tide of Yule, the Germanic adoption of the Roman calendar, and the whole rationale of the introduction of the festival of Christ's nativity into a part of the Germanic year which, according to him, had until then apparently been without a festivity. By the fourteenth century most of the fundamental features of the modern Christmas had already come to have their centre, as now, in December 25.

Not only, it at once appears, is Dr. Tille's conclusion at utter variance with the usually accepted belief which sees in the winter festival of Yule the greatest festival of our heathen ancestors, but his argumentation toward such a conclusion, as will be shown, is almost wholly iconoclastic, and in many important matters furnishes us, if we accept it, with an entirely different point of view with regard to fundamental facts of early Germanic culture, and this, too, often along broad lines. In following out an argument of this nature, where destructive criticism must of necessity play an important part, it is, of course, essential to carry a forceful pen. The author's ink, however, is often unnecessarily tinctured with gall, and he misses a point in that, consciously or not, he sets up a position of "Aut Cæsar aut nihil" that frequently repels and thus weakens the force of his reasoning. The book is a diatribe against the Germans. "Another scholar," he says, referring to Kluge in his etymological dictionary, "has told us that he knows better than Tacitus." "Weinhold," in the case of a certain statement with regard to Martinmas, "with a few vague remarks, which can scarcely be taken seriously, jumps over the whole point which ought to have been the centre of his investigation." "Kuhn's article," bearing upon a Germanic knowledge of a solar year with solstices and equinoxes, he says, "is not to be taken seriously, at least as far as the Germanics [*sic*] are concerned." "Ulric Jahn's generalizations, according to which a pre-Christian winter-solstice fire would have to be supposed as a general custom, are void of any historical foundation, and merely represent fantastic speculations." "Even Rudolf Koegel," he writes, "who has a great inclination for finding something Germanic everywhere, admits this custom"—viz., of walking about at Christmas in the hides of calves and deer—"to be of Italian origin." And so they all are unceremoniously bowled over in turn, one after another, until only the author himself is left standing. We can but think this testiness unfortunate; for the book is full of suggestion; and even if we fail to be convinced of the truth of the author's main line of argument, we cannot deny the astuteness of much of his reasoning. His whole treatment of his subject shows wide reading, and his citation of sources, Germanic and Latin, contained in the foot-notes, is a valuable storehouse of historical fact that often has a bearing beyond the immediate matter in hand.

The most credible theory of the Germanic year, as of the Indo-Germanic, bespeaks fundamentally a dual division—winter and summer. The author asserts on page 2 that "the tri-partition of the Germanic year is an unshakable fact"; but, after a citation of instances, he is constrained to add that, "however well established these facts are, etymology cannot be adduced in favor of an ancient tri-partition of the Germanic year; ancient names of three ancient seasons cannot be given; nay, etymology decidedly points to a dual division. We have, therefore, to accept this as a fact." He maintains, however, an early tri-partition of the economic year of Oriental extraction, used before the Germanic people came into contact with the Roman pre-Julian calendar, whose ultimate unit is a three-score-day tide, six of these making up the whole. "Yule" is the name of one of these three-score-day tides, and "the strange fact," he says, "that no satisfactory Germanic or even Aryan etymology can be given" for these oldest names "seems to point to the probability that these names, like the institutions they denote, have their origin beyond the world of the Aryan family of languages." Bugge, however, has pointed out the true etymology of "Yule," which is carried back to a primitive Germanic **jehwela*, which in its turn corresponds fundamentally, sound for sound, with Latin *joculus*, indicating, thus, at the very beginning, a merry-making festival season. The author rejects this as "a very bold etymological attempt," which, nevertheless, it is not. The citation of "Yule" in its earliest Gothic form as an inexplicable word does not at all bolster up his argument, for, whatever may have been its application afterward, at the outset it apparently carried with it a sense of festivity. The word is at hand in varying form in Gothic, Old Norse, and Anglo-Saxon; it is, accordingly, Common Germanic, and, as its Latin counterpart shows, Indo-Germanic. There is no valid proof whatsoever, it seems to us, that it is or ever was the name of an Oriental three-score-day tide.

With winter and summer as basal conceptions, we find at an early time, in accordance with a widely accepted theory, that the Germanic year was quartered according to the solstices and equinoxes. The year began, in this way, at the time of the winter solstice, the summer solstice marking the beginning of summer. Natural divisions, again, were formed by the equinoxes, the spring equinox marking the beginning of spring, and the autumn equinox the beginning of autumn. It is not necessary to presuppose here an absolute astronomical knowledge as to the very days of the solstices or the equinoxes. It may very well have been, as was apparently also the case with ancient Germanic festivals—and the two assumptions go hand in hand—that certain short periods were set apart within which these tides should fall. Of the ultimate modification of these conditions as the result of Roman contact there can be, of course, no argument.

Dr. Tille maintains with asperity that there is no such thing as a Germanic quartering of the year, which, he says, is entirely of Roman origin, as is the knowledge of solstices and equinoxes. The summer solstice, he thinks, was "probably taken over directly from popular Roman tradition." Of a knowledge of the winter solstice he finds no early trace. "The equinoxes seem to have become familiar to the clerical Germanic mind through the bearing the spring equinox had on the fixing of Easter." The time subsequently celebrated as the Christian festival of Martinmas is to him the beginning of winter and the beginning of the economic year, which was divided, according to the theory of tri-partition, again at Mid-March and Mid-July. At Martinmas the author finds, then, the ancient Germanic festival of the winter's beginning. When the Roman legions and the Roman administration brought the Julian calendar up into Germanic territory, and with it all sorts of Roman customs, the Calends of January, like others, became, he maintains, a festive tide among the German peoples, without any special reference originally, it may be, to the new year. In the course of time, however, that side came into the foreground to rival and finally to replace the old Germanic New Year toward the middle of November. When Christmas ultimately takes the place which had once been held by Martinmas and becomes the great festival of the year, we find these Calends of January rites, together with Germanic usages having special reference to the beginning of the year (for Dr. Tille still concedes a trace of these latter), all transferred to Christmas—the Calends log, the Calends cakes, the Calends greens, and the Calends mummeries with the rest. "The Germanics," he says, "never had a festival about Christmas." "December 25, the pseudo-solstice of the Julian calendar, was no Germanic festive day until after the contact of Germanic tribes with the Romans."

It is impossible here to go into the niceties of the argument in all its bearings. In spite of the array of apparent testimony, the author, to our mind, does not prove his case. Many of his historical citations are capable of quite another interpretation than that which he puts upon them. A single instance will suffice. In a letter written in 742, by Bonifacius, "the apostle to the Germans," to Pope Zacharias, the missionary complains that his Germans justified themselves in certain heathen customs by the excuse that they had witnessed similar things at Rome, close to St. Peter's Church, where they were regarded as permissible. They had seen, they said, that every year, on the eve of the Calends of January, processions went through the streets with heathen shouts and unchristian songs. Dr. Tille regards this as an example of the perfect unity of popular usage as between the Continental Germans and the Romans, brought about by the complete transference of the Roman customs to German soil; the German Calends rites not only resembling the Roman, but being felt to be identical with them by the peo-

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ple who celebrated them. It is perfectly possible, however, to regard this, as Rudolf Koegel has explained it, as the celebration of the Germanic New Year's festival, which, at the time when the beginning of the year coincided with the winter solstice, was a part of the heathen festival of Weinachten, *i. e., wihen nahten,* "in the holy (twelve) days." A Gothic song of this very character in a Latin translation of the sixth century, but bearing the marks of extreme antiquity, has been preserved in a treatisé of the Byzantine Emperor Constantine VII., where it is accompanied with a description of the New Year celebration at the Byzantine Court in his time, *i. e.,* in the tenth century. The sense of the song had at this time been forgotten, but here are still the singing, the shouts and the dancing, the masks and the mummery that we believe were characteristic features of the heathen Germanic festival.

Dr. Tille finds, up to the eleventh century, in England no case in which Christmas is called Yule, but he cites from King Alfred's laws of 888 the phrase *on Gehhol,* which he explains to mean not the day of Nativity, but the time about that day in so far as it was proclaimed holy by the Church. This is undoubtedly the precise state of the case. The oldest Germanic use of the word is a tide, not a day. Old Norse *jól,* inevitably meaning in the heathen time a festal tide, is a neuter plural. Anglo-Saxon *geóla* is a month name. This latter was admirably defined by Leo—who hit the nail squarely on the head—in his *Glossar* of 1877, as "das fröhlich machende, ausgelassen machende Mitwinterfest, und dann die begleitenden Monate *ærra geóla* und *æftera geóla.*" The whole passage in which these phrases occur is worthy of citation: "This month is named Decembris in Latin, and in our tongue the former *Yule,* because two months are named with one name: one is the *former Yule,* the other the *after Yule,* because one of them comes before the sun, *i. e., before* it turns itself about to the lengthening of day, whilst the other comes *after.*" Gothic *Jiuleis* is also a month name, and, just as in Anglo-Saxon, we find in the Gothic calendar fragment *fruma Jiuleis,* 'the first Yule,' here, however, applied to November, but, as Skeat points out, not necessarily inconsistent with the Anglo-Saxon use, since November may once have also been reckoned as a Yule month.

The true explanation of the matter is, that in all probability "Yule" was originally the heathen festival tide at the beginning of the New Year, which fell about the time of the winter solstice, and to this day in Iceland in popular usage "Yule" is remembered as the year's beginning, in that a man is as many years old as he has passed "Yule nights." Its meaning was gradually extended to a month name, which included the time before and after the actual celebration of the New Year. With the introduction of the Christian Christmas it was then again narrowed down, and this time more closely than before, to indicate a single day, about which day, as a consequence of this process, there is a grouping of customs heathen-Germanic, Roman and Christian.

For the consideration of various other phases of the matter—for the supposed celebration of a Germanic dead festival, about the middle of winter, which the author asserts, again, is but a feature of the Calends of January celebration; for the *Twelve nights* which he maintains are but the *Dodekahemeron* of the Church; for the growth of the regular ecclesiastical celebration of December 25th as the anniversary of the birth of Christ; and for the formulation of the Scandinavian year and its bearings, which chapters contain, if we do not entirely mistake, a deal of corroborative testimony for the attitude taken in this review—we must refer the reader to Dr. Tille's volume itself. It is unfortunate, as seriously impairing its usefulness, that the book should have no index.

MIDSUMMER ABERRATION.

The Midsummer of Italian Art. Containing an examination of the works of Michel Angelo, Leonardo da Vinci, Raphael Santi, and Correggio. By Frank Preston Stearns. Revised Edition. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1900.

The author of this book makes considerable pretensions for it. In its first edition it was called, by the London *Spectator,* an excellent work to interest beginners in the study of Italian art. This characterization seems to be rather resented by Mr. Stearns, who says:

"If there are others who share in this illusion, I would recommend them to compare my account of Michelangelo's *Last Judgment* or of his *Moses,* with those in Mr. Symond's [*sic*] biography, or my criticism of the *Sistine Madonna,* or the *Victory of Constantine,* with those by Crowe and Cavalcaselle. The *Midsummer of Italian Art* is intended rather as a post-graduate course, and a supplement to Lübke or Woltmann."

He thinks that "there is no thoroughgoing criticism of Michelangelo's works in any language," and that his own is the "first attempt in that direction." His point of view is that "technicalities have their value, . . . but the motive of a great work of art is even more important"; and "to penetrate the intellectual conception of the artist-seer is the object of the present volume." He pays his compliments to Mr. Berenson in a sneer at "tactile values," and, in an appendix entitled "Morelli Resartus," disposes of that critic to his own satisfaction.

The writer who assumes such ground as this must expect to be judged by a high standard. The question as to what is "the intellectual conception" of a work of art is unfortunately one on which infinite argument is possible and conclusion quite impossible, and we must therefore beg leave to examine Mr. Stearns on such technicalities as historic facts and dates and the accuracy of his description of the material contents of works of art. Such "technicalities" have undoubtedly "their value," and the result of such an examination may not unfairly be taken as casting some light upon the probable worth of the author's interpretation of artistic motives. We shall therefore take up, in something like the order of their occurrence, a number of Mr. Stearns's statements of matters of fact.

On p. 31 we are told that "the horse of Coleoni [*sic*] is represented as pacing, and the General himself is rising in his stirrups." Mr. Muybridge's photographs have generally been accepted as demonstrating that Verrocchio's equestrian statue of Colleoni is one of the few correct representations in modern art of the *walk* of the horse, while the General is simply riding on a high mediæval saddle and with long stirrup-leathers. On the same page the "stiffness" of the figure is pointed out as characteristic of Leonardo, though how a gentleman in plate-armor should be otherwise than stiff it is difficult to see. The tail of the horse, it is said, "has been arranged with as much care as a lady's coiffeur," but perhaps it was the printer who confused the barber with his handiwork.

Technicalities of a different sort are the subject of a sentence on p. 50, which, in spite of some practical as well as theoretic knowledge of painting, we are totally unable to understand. We can only transcribe it and leave the reader to make what sense of it he can: "Leonardo painted his shadows one over the other, fusing them together as he did so; a method which requires much more pains than the commoner system of using an opaqué dead color, which can be modified, but will not fuse with other tints." After this even "a small study of a youthful head about two inches square" cannot surprise us.

On p. 53 is a discussion of what is called "the competition between Leonardo and Michelangelo," which concludes with the statement that "Soderini and his council clearly made a mistake in deciding against the latter; for if they had given the work to Michelangelo they would have obtained their painting for the city hall." The facts are, of course, that there never was any competition in the strict sense, or any decision. Leonardo was given a commission in 1503 to paint one wall of the hall, and Michelangelo was given a commission in 1504 for the other. There was rivalry, not competition, and as neither cartoon was ever carried out, the council did not "obtain their painting" after all.

Two statements about Michelangelo's early relief known as "The Battle of the Centaurs" occur on page 70. The first is, that the style of this work constituted "a small revolution in Florentine relief work, such as would have astonished Ghiberti, and probably did astonish Donatello." As Donatello died some seven years before Michelangelo was born, the work must have been very astonishing indeed to have produced such an effect. An even greater anachronism is implied in the other statement, which is to the effect that Michelangelo seems to have desired "to show how much more he could include in the same space than the Greeks did in the reliefs of their temples," which he can never have seen.

The significance of the action in several of Michelangelo's figures is doubtful, but the author of the only "thoroughgoing criticism" extant must be held to pretty strict account. No one has satisfactorily explained what the South Kensington Cupid is really doing, but that " he kneels down to draw his arrow to the head, by an upward motion of the arm" is demonstrably not true unless the god is left-handed. The action of the David has been correctly explained by Symonds, and there is no excuse for a reversion to the blunder of earlier critics, who thought that the right hand held the pebble, while any one at all conversant with the drawing of the human hand should know that the Christ of the "Last Judgment" is not "pointing to the wound in his side," and that therefore the whole interpretation of his action falls to the ground. But perhaps the most remarkable instance of that inability to describe correctly a work of art to which so many critics are subject is Mr. Stearns's

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statement that, in the fresco of "The Temptation and the Expulsion," "Eve plucks the fruit . . . and offers it to Adam, who reclines in a luxurious attitude beneath." The merest glance at any reproduction of the picture is sufficient to show that Adam is standing and Eve seated upon the ground. Of the so-called "Victory" we are told that "the lower portion of the block is unfinished, and it is not certain what Michelangelo proposed to develop out of it," although it is perfectly plain that it is the kneeling figure of an old man with a heavy beard; and the figure of Lorenzo de' Medici, which Mr. Stearns persists, in spite of Heath Wilson, in calling Giuliano, is said to be dressed in a "suit of plain mediæval armor" instead of the Renaissance-Roman armor which he really wears. Finally, of the "Captives" of the Louvre it is absurdly said that "the muscular system is barely perceptible"; and of that most formal of great compositions, "The Last Judgment," that "the grouping is very remarkable, for it repudiates all suspicion of preconceived design." These are errors enough in easily verifiable matters, and they prepare one for a false statement of fact which carries with it a misconception of Michelangelo's whole temper and method in art. When we are told that he intrusted the "Christ Triumphant" to his assistants "after finishing the head," we have a contradiction not only of the known facts of this particular case, but of all we know of that master's characteristic love for the body and carelessness of the head.

We cannot go through the whole book on this scale, and must, omitting various passages we had marked, come to the author's treatment of the works of Raphael. He begins with a pretty confusion by which the "Solly Madonna" is elaborately described under the title of the "Diotalevi Madonna," while a third picture, the "Madonna with St. Jerome and St. Francis," is called the "Solly Madonna." After this we have a long attempt to prove that the various madonnas of Raphael's Florentine period beginning with the "Gran' Duca" and ending with the "Madonna of the Diadem," "were all, or nearly all, taken from the same models, evidently a Florentine lady of good position, and her children; who, though somewhat idealized, appears [*sic*] at different ages during a space of not less than four years." In order to make out his case Mr. Stearns has to date the "Madonna del Gran' Duca" in "1501 or 1502," although Raphael did not go to Florence until 1504, and he ends with an amazing paragraph which we will quote in full:

"'The Madonna of the Diadem' in the Louvre forms the last of this series, and in it we meet the same mother as in 'La Belle Jardinière,' at least three years older; with an older St. John and a much younger Christ-child, whom we naturally suppose to be the third in this highly favored family. The picture cannot be dated earlier than 1507, and, owing to the ruins in the landscape background, critics have generally conjectured that it was painted after Raphael had removed to Rome. This is possible, but it is unlikely that his lady model should also have gone to Rome at the same time, especially with a new-born child. If he had painted the group from memory, he would not have represented them older, but as they were when he last saw them. The quality of the painting is essentially Florentine as well as its design:"

To puncture this bubble of a "highly favored Florentine family" evolved from the critic's consciousness, it is only necessary to note one little fact: "La Belle Jardinière" is dated 1507.

Mr. Stearns's inability to be accurate in description is shown again in his discussion of the "Disputa." First, we are told that it is "on the ceiling," then that the cherubs "form a large circle about Jehovah," and finally that St. Peter and St. Paul, Adam, Abraham, Moses, and David are "on the earth beneath." The fresco is painted on the wall, the cherubs are about the figure of Christ, and the saints and patriarchs are seated upon the clouds. What is really going on upon "the earth beneath" is not mentioned at all by Mr. Stearns, although it is the subject of the picture. An equally unfounded statement is that, "in the Exorcism of Attila, Leo X. is represented with the Swiss Guard in their well-known uniform." In fact, he is represented surrounded by cardinals, and there is nothing resembling a Swiss Guard in the picture.

It is useless to multiply instances, and we will end our examination with a very flagrant case. In discussing the Cartoons which Mr. Stearns believes are "now at Hampton Court," he describes the group of apostles, ending thus: "The last is a dark-looking personage, whose face is concealed, and *may have been intended for Judas*." We have taken the liberty of italicizing what is surely a wonderful "penetration of the intellectual conception of the artist-seer," since Raphael has given this "dark-looking personage" an aureole! "They are arranged nearly in two rows," says Mr. Stearns, "so that ten out of the twelve are distinctly visible." It seems that Mr. Stearns cannot even count, for there are only eleven present; so that if Judas was really resurrected for this occasion, and taken into fellowship by the others, there is one missing and unaccounted for.

We have had to express pretty clearly our dissent from many of Mr. Stearns's statements of fact. It gives us pleasure to agree with him in at least one matter of opinion. We are of one mind with him in the conclusion that any one who considers his book an excellent one to place in the hands of beginners is suffering from an illusion. We think a rather good preliminary education quite necessary to any one who would read it with impunity.

Towards Pretoria: A Record of the War between Briton and Boer, to the relief of Kimberley. By Julian Ralph, Special War Correspondent to the *Daily Mail*. F. A. Stokes Co. 12mo, pp. 328.

Mr. Ralph's descriptions of the war in South Africa are of Lord Methuen's campaign, on the line from Cape Town to Kimberley. His chapter on Natal and Ladysmith is a compilation subsequently made. What he saw he tells with his well-known vividness of narration. Beginning with the transformation of Cape Town, when it became at once the base of great military operations and the city of refuge for miners, traders, and speculators flying from the gold and diamond fields, he takes us to De Aar, near the Orange Free State border, where a railway siding in a wilderness was made a camp and an advanced depot of supplies for Methuen's army, almost as rapidly as the shifting of scenes on the stage. Light lumber frames and corrugated iron roofs and sides were thrown together about as fast as tents could be pitched. The dust and the smother, the broiling heat by day and the aching cold by night, the thirsty marches from water to water, we feel, as we follow these pages, with strong imagination of the hard discomforts of soldiering in such a repellent country and such a trying climate.

The battles on this line were close to the railway and its stations at Belmont, Graspan, Modder River, and Maagersfontein. Mr. Ralph gives us the characters of the landscape at each of these battle-fields—the copjes crowned with the boulder breastworks of the Boers, and the brown mealy soil in the lower levels, where the long-range rifles of the enemy decimated the English advancing lines from shallow trenches, while trenches and their occupants were alike invisible in the monotonous dust-colored field. He wisely confines himself to detailed description, and says little by way of criticism, but we see for ourselves the omission of thorough reconnoitring which brought the British under a murderous fire as the first notice that an enemy was near, and the straight rush at the enemy's front over a mile of exposed field, while the magazine-guns of the Boers were sweeping it with a constant deadly hail of bullets. One such lesson should have been enough, if the conditions were wholly new. But they were not new. Our civil war had shown that resolute marksmen in the ditch could destroy any line charging over the open, using only the muzzle-loading Springfield rifles. Mars-la-Tour repeated the lesson in 1870, when the French chassepots took all the fight out of the German assailants under similar conditions. Capt. Hoenig's 'Tactics of the Future,' with its clear comments on all this, is supposed to be familiar reading to every general and field-officer of to-day. The increased range of weapons only adds so much to the measured distance within which one must not venture without the preparation and the tactical methods which common sense would teach if no military writer had enlarged upon it. This new story of the first campaign in Africa only confirms the judgment that it was bad strategy to operate on the two distant lines of Kimberley and Ladysmith, and bad tactics to push headlong against the defensive entrenchments of the Boers. Whether as generals or as private soldiers, the Boer militia proved fully equal to the British regulars—another fact it would be folly to blink; and the lesson will not lose point when fuller information shall have completed the correction of the exaggerated stories of the Boers' numbers.

Mr. Ralph's story does not cover the campaign of Lord Roberts, in which the British force is so largely increased as to correct the error of the original division of it, and in which the commander is content to use a strong containing force in front while his decisive operations are by the flank. As far as he has gone, the author seems as trustworthy as he is vivid in description, and makes us feel that we have the means of understanding each situation in turn. His introductory statement of the causes of the war is a moderate and candid one from the British standpoint.

The Ipswich Emersons, A. D. 1636—1900. By Benjamin Kendall Emerson (1294); assisted by Capt. George A. Gordon, Sec.

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N. E. Historic-Genealogical Society. Illustrated. Boston: Printed for private circulation. Pp. 537. 1900.

The current genealogical trend is a new departure. Lists of American genealogies were printed in the *Genealogical Register* from 1857 to 1863. The total aggregate was 246, of which only nineteen contained over 300 pages, and only five had appeared before 1840, namely, Stebbins 1771, Farmer 1812, Sharpless 1816, Sprague 1828, Whitman 1832. But the Wisconsin Historical Society, among whose various specialties genealogy is not the chief, now reports on its shelves 1,453 genealogical volumes and 767 pamphlets. The growth in works of this class has not been more striking in number than in nature. Material to serve has been accumulated from new sources, more justly appreciated and moulded into better form. Among the latest and best specimens of this modern improvement 'The Ipswich Emersons' must unquestionably rank.

The Emersons and their affiliations will absorb the edition, but a wider public, skipping the legion of names and dates, will scrutinize the volume as illustrating the laws of heredity during three centuries. Readers will feel double interest as they see that the authors extenuate nothing. They speak of one Emerson in an almshouse, of several who were non-compos, of a maniac chained for twenty years in his father's house, of one who forced a woman to confess herself a witch, of another who committed suicide, of one divorced, of one charged with counterfeiting; and they set down one in the body of the book as a bank-wrecker and colossal cheat. As to this last unfortunate, however, they give in the appendix evidence of innocence that had been afterwards brought to light. No Emerson will be detected as a slaveholder except by readers who push on to one of the final notes. A silver cup held by seven successive owners for a London product of the sixteenth century is shown in photograph with a tell-tale stamp proving it Boston work and two centuries later. The sketches of some individuals, doubtless inspired by themselves, are rather vainglorious, or have the flavor of business advertisements. (No. 346), a Western fur trader, who had become, as was supposed, the richest man in Vermont, drove a coach and four into the hamlet where he had lived in boyhood, and said to one of his old mates, "What would you give to be me?" The answer was, "Nothing. It is bad enough for me to be myself. God forbid that I be nicknamed, as you are, Lord Pomposity." This shrewd snubbing is not in the book, but is now mentioned because the present writer knows it to be truth.

Among the twenty-eight portraits, the one most typical of Emerson traits in our view is Joseph (No. 334), who lived eighty-eight years, and was a farmer on the coast of Maine. On a coasting voyage in youth he was taken out of the vessel by a British frigate and impressed into its service. A year afterward, when the frigate had anchored a mile from an island, he dropped into the sharkful water by night, swam ashore, scaled a mountain, and lay in hiding, though without food or drink, for four days, till the frigate had set sail. He came home content to live and die where he was born. This hero, whose likeness proclaims the makeup of the man, represents the mass of Emersons—a race of conservatives till roused by supreme emergencies to supreme efforts. Successive generations of them have lived more than a century in the same parish, the same house, and with the same occupation. Sprung from English foresters, or, for some reason, fond of outdoor life, if they changed their base it was to become pioneers where the best lands could be secured. This proclivity brought them into surroundings far out in the West, where necessity proved to them the mother of invention. No. 1033 broke a tooth in his saw, and devised attachable teeth—the first step of a revolution in that industry, which preserves his name as the saver of ten per cent. of the lumber by his thin kerf. (No. 655), when his occupation on a sailing craft was gone, secured the first patent for a screw propeller, and recovered damages for Ericsson's infringement of it. During our civil war the Emerson sawworks turned saws to sabres, and furnished a quarter of a million of them to the Government. Matters military, however, have never been this family's favorites. Some have served, indeed, as privates, subalterns, or chaplains, but while the West Point roster up to 1892 showed 3,384 names, not one of them was Emerson.

The Emersons love that entry of truth which cometh peaceably better than that which cometh with pugnacity. Accordingly, lawyers in their ranks have been fewer than physicians and much fewer than ministers. But "educators" is the best single word to describe the cardinal Emersonian characteristic. This aptitude was perhaps earliest clear in music. It made them teach singing schools, though they were sensitive and must say to many a pupil, "Keep your voice to file saws with" (No. 409). This voice culture has culminated in the Emerson College of Oratory (No. 1006) of Boston, "the largest of its kind in the world," and in (No. 711) who reckons the sale of his musical productions by millions. The best recognition of this musical gift, including, as among the ancient Greeks, all education that was not gymnastic, is afforded by Emerson Hall at Beloit, built, as its founder declared, in honor alike of (No. 807), for fifty years professor there, and of his uncle (No. 392), "whose school in 1818 was the first advanced school for girls." This building was a gift to the college from Dr. Pearson "for the use of the women of the Northwest."

In glancing through Emersoniana we seldom meet a page without the name of a professional teacher. These names, however, are far from embracing the hosts who have been teachers in fact. Teachers concerning labor and how to make the most of it—administrators under the most various names, and without names—are beyond numbering in the Emerson annals. The very name Emerson is held to mean 'head of a hamlet,' or 'clan-chief.' For one of these industrial geniuses a petition was sent to King George in colonial times that the sole privilege of making potash might be granted to (No. 115), an Emerson who was felt to know how to do it best. In more than one group of Congregational churches an Emerson has been styled bishop, though without laying on of hands. Conductors and higher officers on the Underground Railroad were a natural Emersonian growth. Another Emersonian genius in management (No. 927) reports a factory carried on through more than a generation without a strike. But the transcendent example of this guiding gift is afforded by (No. 810), the financial backer of the family book. At first a school-teacher, he has magnified his office till it comprehends the management of men in the most multifarious activities. "He has been a manager, under more titles than space allows us to mention, in the working of over forty different enterprises—some of them of national reputation."

A History of Gothic Art in England. By Edward S. Prior, M.A., with illustrations by Gerald C. Horsley, and many Plans and Diagrams. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: The Macmillan Co.

This book treats of Gothic architecture in England from the English point of view, according to which it is maintained that this architecture was independent of the Gothic of France, that it was an equally spontaneous art, and the expression of native artistic aptitudes hardly inferior to those which produced the French Gothic style.

In the opening chapter, after some remarks on the uneven progress of the arts in past ages, and some just observations on the ravages of so-called restoration, and the consequent difficulty of now finding architectural monuments of ancient and mediæval times in their integrity, the author enters upon a discussion of the conflicting theories which have recently arisen respecting Gothic art. Then follows a general outline of the rise of this art. The priority and preëminence of the Gothic of the Île de France are admitted, and its evolution out of the elements of older systems is recognized. As the principles of the new art become better understood, the development is quickened;

"the circle of the experimenters becomes immensely widened; instead of Art being the province of a sect, the whole people combine in the pursuit of beauty, and become endowed with the faculties of artists. Instead of slow, traditional skill handed on from father craftsman to son, or from master to pupil, every member of the community instructs his neighbor in artistic effort, and gains a step from him himself. The whole being of the age, its religions and its philosophies, its aspirations and conceptions, are concentrated on art as the one means of expression. The passion for the beautiful controls every sphere of life and feeling."

Thus, "in Western Europe, Gothic art grew from small, widespread beginnings, with slow but irresistible impulse, the master of its conditions, until, in the Île de France, came that expansion which in a few years brought about the most consummate art of building which the world has achieved."

But, with characteristic English zeal to establish the claims of English Gothic, the author proceeds to qualify his praise of the noble French art, remarking that "the idea of articulated and balanced construction which took the Frenchman's fancy and became to him a domineering mistress, was to the English artist only a helpmate. As an indispensable vehicle for the expression of his art he was enamoured of it, but he would not let it stifle every other affection." But he then adds: "The vigor of his Norman building had given him [the English designer] a grand art; and in treatment of mass and wall surface he retained to the end the ideals of this first Romanesque design." He thus unwittingly yields his whole subsequent contention respecting the originality, and the Gothic character, of pointed architecture in England. For the Norman Romanesque was not an English art, and, in retaining

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to the end the principles of this Romanesque, the English pointed building could never become really Gothic. Yet, through some twenty more pages of the introductory chapter, it is maintained that the progress of mediæval architecture in England was quite independent of that of France. It is true, indeed, as Mr. Prior affirms, that this English pointed art has a character of its own, which is often very admirable. It can hardly be questioned that the characteristic monuments of the so-called Early English style are sometimes among the most beautiful works of their kind that were ever produced. But to call this style either Gothic or purely English, is to ignore fundamental architectural distinctions and historical facts.

The larger Norman churches in England had been built under Benedictine supremacy, and the rise of what is called English Gothic is said to have been due to "the zeal of the new monastic reformations, which, by the middle of the twelfth century, were making in England determined way in competition with the rule of St. Benedict." But to the lack of power and position on the part of the Augustinian and Cistercian orders is attributed the fact that the Gothic of England was developed "in middle-sized churches rather than in those of the first rank, which had already been provided for England by Norman enterprise." This smallness of scale seems to appear to the writer to constitute the only material inferiority of English Gothic to the Gothic of France.

The account given of the influences which gradually shaped the plan and general proportions of the Anglo-Norman church is interesting, but not new. The lengthening of the nave, the accentuation of the transept, the prolongation of the east end, the square termination of the east end, and the widening of the west front, are discussed with pardonable partiality, as if they constituted conspicuous improvements which gave the English church edifice some sort of artistic superiority. The statement, p. 53, that "the English parish church sprung from the interaction of pre-Conquest elements, which, if in their origin necessarily of foreign introduction, were developed into a native type," is undoubtedly correct. The English parish church certainly became essentially English in character and expression, and as a feature in the sweet English landscape it is altogether charming, and without parallel elsewhere. Nor can it be questioned that in the larger churches, with all their imported elements, Anglo-Norman art had, before the close of the twelfth century, "begun to move in lines of its own." No argument is needed to establish this obvious fact; but a point to be held in mind respecting this movement is that it was not in Gothic lines. It is to be hoped that some English writer may yet arise who will correctly, and appreciatively, illustrate this Anglo-Norman art without drawing comparisons between it and the art of the Continent in the effort to establish any English artistic superiority. Such effort has weakened the writings of Parker and most other English authors. The pointed art of England will not bear comparison with the Gothic of France. The artistic conditions of England in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries were not at all comparable to those of the Île de France at the same time.

Through the remainder of the book the author elaborates his thesis, giving many examples of English Gothic which illustrate its history, from the beginnings of the so-called Early English to the fullest development of the Perpendicular style. As a manual of information respecting mediæval art in England the book is valuable; and it is handsomely printed and copiously illustrated.

The History of the European Fauna. By R. F. Scharff. London: Walter Scott; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899. 12mo, pp. 364. Illustrated.

To indicate a suitable method of treatment of a very complex subject is said to be the purpose of this book. As a history, present conditions of knowledge necessarily make it only an approximation, yet it illustrates most worthy lines and methods of research concerning the geographical distribution of animals and plants, and in general is as satisfactory as any work of the kind now existing. Living forms are traced back to their original homes, the regions of dispersal, perhaps the present dwelling-places of most of their kindred, through their affinities with recent and fossil forms. Occurrence at various localities fixes the routes of migration and determines the earlier conditions of land and climate. Accidental colonization is put aside as an insignificant factor.

The British Islands are the points of departure for the author. It is decided that, in the early tertiary, these islands were united with one another, with Southern Europe, and, by way of Scandinavia, Spitzbergen, and Greenland, with Arctic America. Any connection with America by way of the Faroes and Iceland is supposed to have disappeared at a much earlier date. About this time a marine connection existed between the Aralo-Caspian and the White Sea. The climate, miocene, was subtropical, and the earliest immigrants (the Lusitanian invasion) reached Britain from the South, where they had arrived still earlier by land connecting Spain, Northern Africa, Southern Italy, Southern Greece, and Asia Minor. Some reptiles, batrachians, and insects, and the rabbit were thus received. The Alps rose as islands which eventually were connected with Asia, whence came a flora and fauna that, after considerable modification, spread over land of later emergence to the west and the northward, forming the author's Alpine invasion, from which were derived particular molluscs and insects. The Lusitanian connection had been broken, but establishment of the more direct northern route from Asia brought about an Oriental immigration, with which came the mammoth, wild boar, badger, dippers and pheasants, reptiles, batrachians, and many invertebrates. The Arctic immigration, the next in order, was comparatively poor; it had no reptiles or batrachians, but was marked by the barren-ground reindeer, the Arctic hare, and by American molluscs, fresh-water sponges, and plants. About this time Ireland was separated from England, the Irish Sea taking the place of a former fresh-water lake, as evidenced by the present distribution of the Salmonidæ.

The advent of the glacial period followed the Arctic migration, possibly to some extent promoted it. The climate had gradually become colder until the glaciation was at hand, but the cold was never so great as is generally supposed; the mean temperature was little lower than at present, while the climate was more equable and more moist, conditions which favored a great deal of snow. During the ice period, Alpine life was only crowded down to lower levels, and even in Greenland the present fauna and flora survived where it is. Towards the beginning of the period the land bridge between Scandinavia and Greenland was broken, and, somewhat later, land rose to break the water connection between the Caspian Sea and the White, which further lowered the Arctic temperature and reduced the habitable area in the north, preparing the way for the Siberian invasion south and westward. When the migrants of this invasion reached England, they were unable to cross to Ireland. Among the species involved were twenty-six mammals, nine of which are still living, and many European beetles. The earliest of these migrants are found in the Forest beds which, lying immediately above the lower boulder clay, are fixed as contemporaneous with the interglacial deposits of Germany, which in turn fixes the time of the migration. By this order some of the commonly placed upper pliocene beds become lower pleistocene. The boulder clays immediately preceding the Siberian migration were marine deposits, and the Forest beds were laid down at the mouth of some great river, probably the Rhine.

Though the foregoing cannot give a fair idea of the general excellence of the book, it will indicate something of its scope and character, and of the conclusions reached, together with the possibilities for differences of opinion and controversy. A few instances indicate that the proofreader was not always alert; for examples, mention is made of "a flora composed of flowering plants and cryptograms," and the lizards *Phrynocephalus auritus* and *Agama sanguinolenta* are placed in the new-world family *Iguanidæ*.

My Mother's Journal: A Young Lady's Diary of Five Years Spent in Manila, Macao, and the Cape of Good Hope, from 1819 to 1834. Edited by Katherine Hillard. Boston: George H. Ellis. 1900.

We have here a book which, though it makes its principal appeal to the descendants and relatives and friends of Mrs. Hillard, who, as Miss Harriet Low, wrote the journal it presents to us, will prove instructive and entertaining to so many others as read it. Those who knew Mrs. Hillard only when her "autumnal face" was growing every year more beautiful, will find something particularly charming in the self-portraiture of the sparkling girl, nor will they fail to recognize in her those traits which were the early prophecies of her maturest grace. It would have been better, to our thinking, if Miss Hillard, who has edited the journal with much delicate discrimination, had been a little less reserved and given us some fuller account of her mother's family connection. A tardy footnote informs us that she was a sister of Mr. A. A. Low, the father of Mr. Seth Low, President of Columbia University. We would not have had the good uncle who figures so conspicuously in the journal left in the vague half-light of anonymity; and we would have been told something definite of the business house he represented and of the general character of the trade in which it was engaged.

Various elements conspire to make Miss

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Low's journal an attractive one. It is written in a fresh and piquant manner. How many of our college-bred girls have picked up so good a style? There is also the fascination which habitually inheres in times and manners very different from our own—the voyage of fifteen weeks' duration; the pleasant glimpse of Manila as it was in 1829; the delightful impressions of the South African Dutch in 1834; the visit to St. Helena before Napoleon's dust had been removed to France. The unconscious comment on the personal and social dangers of our new colonial entanglements is not to be escaped. We are frequently made aware of a shady side to that brilliant gayety which at first fascinates the Salem girl so much, and later bores her a good deal. Here were materials for such stories as Mr. Kipling's 'Plain Tales from the Hills,' but hinted at with a reserve in happy contrast to his immense sophistication.

But altogether the most interesting aspect of Miss Low's journal is its entirely frank and simple revelation of the young writer's mind and heart. The social life of Macao contrasted sharply with the petty provincialism of Salem, Mass., and her new liberties and opportunities were at first revelled in with innocent delight, though not without frequent protests against card-playing Saturday nights, and similar infringements of the Puritan rule. Evidently she was very attractive to the Macao bachelors, and so little suspicious of them that more than once she was on the point of accepting an unworthy suitor. Disappointed affection did much to dull the edge of her enjoyment and make the prospect of her return to America welcome. The most interesting episode of her life in China was an attempt to break down the barrier set up in Canton against foreign women. She went to Canton with her aunt, but they were obliged to beat an ignominious retreat. The moralizing and occasional rhapsodizing in her journal sound well-known contemporary notes. She was a stout little Unitarian, and read Buckminster's sermons with warm approval, and held her own against some violent assaults in a praiseworthy fashion. It is a piece of singular good fortune that her portrait was painted in Macao by a good artist, Chinnery, and that its reproduction, in an excellent photogravure, enables us to see her, in habit as she was, with the big sleeves at which she railed in 1830, but to which she finally succumbed.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, W. B. The Head of the Pasht. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Anglo-American Guide to Paris Exhibition, 1900. London: W. Heinemann; New York: F. A. Stokes. 50c.
Anna Price Dillon: Memoir and Memorials. By her husband. New York: Printed privately.
Arnold, Sarah L., and Kittredge, Prof. G. L. The Mother Tongue. Boston: Ginn & Co. Books I. and II. 55c. and 70c.
Askwith, Rev. E. H. The Christian Conception of Holiness. Macmillan.
Bangs, John Kendrick. The Booming of Acre Hill. Harpers. $1.25.
Baskett, J. N. As the Light Led. Macmillan. $1.50.
Blaisdell, Etta A., and Mary F. Child Life in Literature. Macmillan.
Bloundelle-Burton, J. The Seafarers: A Modern Romance. Appletons. $1.
Boldrewood, R. Babes in the Bush. Macmillan. $1.50.
Burroughs, John. The Light of Day. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Capes, B. From Door to Door. F. A. Stokes Co.
Caxton, William. The Golden Legend. 2 vols. [Temple Classics.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan.
Cecil, E. On the Eve of War. London: John Murray; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Chapman, F. M. Bird Studies with a Camera. Appleton.
Cobbold, R. P. Innermost Asia. Scribners. $5.00.
Colby, Prof. F. M., and Peck, Prof. H. T. The International Year-Book: A Compendium of the World's Progress during the Year 1899. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Cox, Rev. T. E. Biblical Treasury of the Catechism. Wm. H. Young & Co.
Dearmer, P. Highways and Byways in Normandy. Macmillan. $2.
Demolins, Edmond. Boers or English: Who are in the Right? London: Leadenhall Press; New York: Scribners. 40c.
Deschamps, G. La Vie et les Livres. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Dole, Edmund P. Hiwa, A Tale of Ancient Hawaii. Harpers. $1.
Doyle, A. C. The Green Flag, and Other Stories of War and Sport. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.50.
Drummond, H. Dwight L. Moody: Impressions and Facts: McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.
Dugmore, A. R. Bird Homes. Doubleday & McClure. $2.00.
Elshemus, L. M. A Triple Flirtation. New York: The Abbey Press.
Finch, Adelaide V. The Finch First Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Fink, Dr. K. A Brief History of Mathematics. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co. $1.50.
Fox, John, jr. A Cumberland Vendetta. New ed. Harpers. $1.25.
Genung, Rev. G. F. The Magna Charta of the Kingdom of God. Philadelphia: American Baptist Pub. Society.
Hall, F. W., and Geldart, W. M. Aristophanis Comoediae. Henry Frowde. 3s. 6d.
Hayman, Rev. H. The Epistles of the New Testament: An Attempt to Present them in Current and Popular Idiom. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan.
Henson, H. H. Church Problems. London: John Murray. 12 shillings.
Hillard, Katherine. My Mother's Journal. Boston: George H. Ellis. $2.
Hoar, George F. The Lust of Empire. Tucker Pub. Co. 25c.
Hocking, D. K. To Pay the Price. Chicago: Advance Pub Co. 25c.
Howard, Blanche Willis. The Garden of Eden. Scribners. $1.50.
Howells, W. D. Forty-Five. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50c.
Hurll, Estelle M. Jean François Millet. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Kinross, A. An Opera and Lady Grasmere. F. A. Stokes Co.
Kipling, R. Stalky & Co. Early Verse. From Sea to Sea. Scribner. 3 vols.
Knox, John Jay. A History of Banking in the United States. Bradford Rhodes & Co.
Lane, M. A. L. Oriole Stories. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Lazarus, M. The Ethics of Judaism. Philadelphia: The Jewish Publication Society of America. Part I.
Luce, R. Going Abroad? Some Advice. New ed. Boston: R. & L. Luce.
Lummis-Paterson, G. W. The Management of Dynamos. London: Crosby Lockwood & Son; New York: Macmillan. 3s. 6d.
Macdonell, Prof. A. A. A History of Sanskrit Literature. Appleton. $1.50.
Marchant, E. C. Xenophontis Opera Omnia. Henry Frowde. 3s.
Mott, Ed. The Black Homer of Jimtown. Grosset & Dunlap. $1.25.
Murray, T. H. The Journal of the American-Irish Historical Society. Vol. II. Boston: Published by the Society.
Myers, G. The History of Public Franchises in New York City (Boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx). New York: Reform Club Committee.
Peters, Rev. L. E. A Practical Handbook on Sunday-School Work. Philadelphia: American Baptist Pub. Society.
Philipson, D., and Grossmann, L. Selected Writings of Isaac M. Wise. Cincinnati: The Robert Clarke Co. $1.50.
Pfleiderer, Prof. O. Evolution and Theology, and Other Essays. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Plehn, C. C. Introduction to Public Finance. New ed. Macmillan.
Podmore, C. T. A Cynic's Conscience. London: Edward Arnold. 6 shillings.
Pratt, E. A. Leading Points in South African History. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Schönbach, A. E. Uber Lesen und Bildung. Graz: Leuschner & Lubensky.
Scott, Sir Walter. Lady of the Lake. [Pocket English Classics.] Macmillan. 25c.
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